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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 24, 1904.

The Week.

The Senate has confirmed Leonard Wood as major-general, seven months or more after receiving his nomination from President Roosevelt. During this time, support of Gen. Wood has come from the White House and War Department as urgently as if the fate of the Administration depended upon its favorite's appointment. To save him, Secretary Root frankly assumed the responsibility for the *jai alai* scandal, for the extra-legal actions of the Cuban courts in the Rathbone case, and for other matters for which Gen. Wood was rightly criticised and attacked. But now that confirmation has come, it is neither a certificate of character nor a guarantee of fitness. It indicates that Congress is as indifferent to the honor of the army as it was in 1898, when it approved the unloading upon it of countless "sons of fathers" and broken-down civil-war veterans, and in 1901, when its members were concerned only as to the number of captaincies and lieutenancies each might bag. That Gen. Wood owes his advancement to the personal friendship of two Presidents, rather than to any individual merit, is a fact which a dozen confirmations could not hide; and that he lacks the respect of a vast majority of the officers of the army.

President Schurman, answering the questions of a New Rochelle audience, took firm ground for Philippine independence. "What we have done for Cuba in a short time," he said, "I should like to see done for the Philippines in a reasonably longer time." We regret that no hearer asked, "How long a time?" for that is the point at issue; but one may fairly assume that President Schurman did not mean to postpone the act of liberation for a century or more. It is all-important that we should gain at least some general notion of the outlook for independence. When all is left vague, we have nothing to offer the natives, and we may not justly encourage any expectation on their part. For, if it is true that freedom cannot come before the fourth generation from Aguinaldo, surely we do a great wrong if we hold before the present Filipinos anything but beneficent subjection. On various occasions Gov. Taft has seemed to think that freedom a hundred years hence could be made a heartening prospect to the brown men, and a reassuring one to us at home. But a hundred years probably seems as long in the Archipelago as it does in America.

President Roosevelt's Panama policy has worked havoc with his supporters' sense of humor. Professor Hart of Harvard showed this very strikingly in his recent Cooper Union talk on "The Diplomacy of the Panama Canal." Some one asked him if the treaty of 1846 did not guarantee the sovereignty over the Isthmus to New Granada, and if the United States did not undertake to protect the republic against any effort to overthrow this. The answer was truly astonishing—if it was reported correctly: "The treaty provides for protection by the United States against the invasion of the Isthmus by foreign Powers, but nothing is said about protection against this country." Before ratifying the treaty New Granada should have asked "Quis custodiet ipsos custodes?" According to this view, she had no right to assume that our promise to protect her against foreign nations implied that we should treat her decently ourselves. It was not in the contract that we should not despoil New Granada at will. Therefore, our practical ejection of Colombia from the Isthmus was no violation of our agreement of 1846. In Professor Hart we have a new Daniel come to judgment.

Gov. Odell is to be chairman of the Republican State Committee. Such a possibility has long been discussed, but the decision is now made. Under the most favorable circumstances the Republicans, rent by factional quarrels, are likely to lose the State if conservative Democrats are nominated for President and Governor. This danger is conceded by many of the shrewdest Republican politicians. They admit that they are in dire need of the support of independent voters; they propose to adopt the one course that will drive the independents into the arms of the Democrats. Gov. Odell's behavior has of late sorely tried the better element in all parties; but this gross disregard of official propriety is the last and the unpardonable sin. Many evils attend the plan of having the Governor the party boss, as Odell has been. He is constantly torn by a struggle between his duty to the whole State and his desire to strengthen party machinery. The effect of such a struggle has been very evident in the career of Mr. Odell. His early professions of independence have been one by one abandoned; his pristine vigor of administration, his zeal for economies, have yielded to the pressure of Republican henchmen. Whatever else he has let go, he has been bound to retain his hold on the organization. Such conditions are bad enough; but when he tries to be both chairman and Governor he formally enters upon two absolutely incompatible undertakings. As chair-

man he is responsible for the conduct of the campaign. He tries to secure the support of various corporate interests, the huge railway systems and the traction companies; he is interested in conciliating this man and that, sacrificing something here, letting down the bars there, grubbing for small bits of patronage, and patching up wretched truces till election is over. This petty and intriguing business is expected of a committee chairman: but it is the last thing in the world to which a Governor should stoop. It is plain that Gov. Odell has cast away his former ambition for a higher elective office.

Gov. Warfield has signed the "Jim Crow" bill passed by the Maryland Legislature, one of the most radical separation laws ever proposed in the South. By the new law, every railway and steamship company—which is meant ferries principally—is required to provide "Jim Crow" compartments and rigidly enforce the segregation of the races. That the negro has fallen a victim to the political ambitions of the senior Senator from Maryland is plain to be seen. Mr. Gorman has insisted upon making the race issue a political one; and a bill providing for the submission of a constitutional amendment intended to disfranchise all negroes is now awaiting the Governor's action. It is thought, however, that Gov. Warfield will veto this measure. His opposition is not based upon any desire to save the ballot to the negro, but upon his belief that the bill as drawn is too radical in some of its aspects, even from a disfranchiser's point of view. As it is, Maryland and Mississippi must be bracketed as infected States, and Warfield, urged on by Gorman, must be classed as a Governor fallen ill of negrophobia.

The difference between the treatment of Hulda B. Todd, the Delaware postmistress, and of Cornelius Van Cott, the postmaster of New York, is additional proof of President Roosevelt's inconsistency in handling postal troubles. Miss Todd was efficient, and—as the special committee of the National Civil Service Reform League reports—"no general belief (if any) exists among the people of Greenwood," her village, "that she was ever active in politics"; and yet, because she was obnoxious to the reigning Senator, she was, on the flimsiest charges, promptly ordered to the block. Postmaster Van Cott is notoriously inefficient; the relations between his subordinates and the local Republican machine have been a public scandal; the report of Messrs. Conrad and Bonaparte, published just three months

ago, declared: "We find it impossible to doubt that Mr. Heath, Mr. Van Cott, and Mr. Beavers himself all knew the payment of this additional compensation was expressly forbidden by law." Nevertheless, the resolute and unwavering Theodore Roosevelt has puttered for three months over Van Cott, will have still another investigation before taking action on the inspectors' recommendation that Van Cott and ten of his subordinates be asked to resign "for the good of the service." But if Van Cott were not backed by Senators whose favor President Roosevelt covets, his gross misconduct of his office would have warranted his discharge ten times over.

Tuesday's announcement by the Northern Securities directors was a very simple and routine matter, and need hardly have caused the turmoil with which the Stock Exchange greeted it. The highest court has said that the company, having been organized contrary to law, must go out of business, and the directors proceed to make their arrangements to that end. The decree of the Circuit Court, last April, had shown how the dissolution could be effected. After forbidding the Securities Company to vote hereafter, or draw dividends, on the Northern Pacific and Great Northern stock acquired in exchange for Northern Securities shares, the court added that the Northern Securities should be allowed to return, to stockholders of the two railway companies, "any and all shares of stock . . . which said Northern Securities Company may have heretofore received from such stockholders in exchange for its own stock." More specifically, the court concluded:

"Nothing herein contained shall be construed as prohibiting the Northern Securities Company from making such transfer and assignments of the stock aforesaid to such person or persons as may now be the holders and owners of its own stock originally issued in exchange."

This meant that the Securities Company need not seek out the exact individuals who, in 1901 and afterward, exchanged their Northern Pacific or Great Northern shares for Northern Securities stock. Obviously, an attempt to readjust the matter on such lines would be futile, for Northern Securities shares thus issued have in many instances already changed hands half a dozen times on the open market. The precise *status quo* could not possibly be restored, and the court did not demand that it should. The directors announce that each holder of a share of Northern Securities stock is entitled to Northern Pacific and Great Northern shares in the ratio of the company's total holdings of stock in the two underlying properties. There will no doubt be a season of some bewilderment as to who actually owns the greater interest in the two railways which have regained their independence.

The moral which lies on the surface of Friday's failure in the cotton trade is somewhat trite. All of the byways of commodity speculation are strewn with the wrecks of the Sullys and Leiters and Hutchinsons and Labouisses. Opportunities occur, at intervals, for a speculator with sufficient audacity and sufficient credit—the one is sometimes the consequence of the other—to control by purchase of contracts for delivery all that exists of a given commodity, and sometimes more. If such achievements could be confined to the exchanges, no very great harm would be done. A vast amount of fictitious trading is involved; during this very Sully episode, there have been single days when speculators have bought or sold, on the Cotton Exchange, nearly twice as much cotton as existed in all the markets of the world. What happens to the participants in pure gambling operations of this sort, nobody seriously cares. Unhappily, however, the fortunes of great consuming and manufacturing industries are bound up in this inflated speculation. It was the theory of the anti-option agitators of a decade ago that, by prohibiting purchase and sale of contracts for future delivery of commodities, they could abate such nuisances as that inflicted on the cotton trade this year. What they either blindly or wilfully ignored, however, was that the spinner and the miller are obliged to resort to this very purchase on a "future delivery" basis, in order to organize their own plans for a season's manufacture. Rent, working capital, contracts with consumers of finished goods, and sometimes wages of employees, are arranged on the basis of contracts for the season, and no manufacturer would be safe unless he were at least partially guaranteed future delivery and future price of his raw material. But as the price which he pays to-day is regulated by the prevalent price on the open market, it follows that the legitimate consumer will be harassed, subjected to loss, and sometimes ruined, by such operations as that of Sully and his associates.

Our consul at Rouen sends a gloomy picture of the cotton situation in France. Early this year the spinning syndicate of Normandy decided to reduce its production. In 1903 France exported 75,472,498 pounds of cotton goods, against 78,371,325 in 1902, and 80,834,304 pounds in 1901, and the situation has grown more acute in 1904. The Rouen warehouses have been crowded as a result of the overproduction, while the curtailment of the output of the mills has had a marked effect upon the supply of raw cotton in Continental Europe. According to the *Financial Chronicle*, the amount in sight at the leading centres on the Continent at the close of last week was 743,000 bales, compared with 574,000 bales a year ago, 564,000 bales in 1902, and 472,000 bales in

1901. The effect of high-priced cotton is the same the world over. For some reason final consumers are not freely paying the figures for manufactured goods necessitated by the abnormal quotations on the raw material. It remains to be seen whether it is because they will not, or because they cannot. In this country the orders which the mills are receiving are relatively small, and talk of cutting down is beginning to be heard again in certain quarters. All in all, the outlook is about as confusing as could be imagined. The speculators have led the horse to water, but can they make him drink? Will the real demand for cotton goods in the end justify the quotations on the raw material since last fall?

Mr. Hugh Bell, a leading British iron-master, talks about "dumping" in the most common sense manner in the *Independent Review*. Discussing the ability of a "dumping" country to produce an article cheaper than it can be made elsewhere, owing to natural advantages and superior skill, he says that, should such superiority really exist, the "sooner we know it, and the more rapidly we seek to withdraw our capital from the industry in question, the better." But before admitting that the industry is hopelessly worsted, it is necessary to be assured on a good many points. The chief bogey used to terrify the timorous Briton is American competition. In this matter Mr. Bell does not take us quite as seriously as some of his countrymen do. Indeed, he seems to think that we are more or less troubled with megalomania, or, as he less elegantly phrases it, "swelled head." And to make this clear, he cites the chauvinistic talk of certain of our "captains of industry" before the Industrial Commission. The statement of Mr. Guthrie, of the American Steel Hoop Company, that "the Creator of all things has been good to us" in the matter of raw materials and an intelligent population, in connection with the remark that "we think we have pretty good directors," causes him to ask a pertinent question. If it is true that this country is convinced it can put the leading old-world markets out of business, why have American firms been establishing industrial plants in Great Britain? And why do American millions flow into the construction of underground railways in London, if shortly London is to dwindle to an inconsiderable village?

But supposing it is true that Great Britain is worsted in the struggle for any one market, does it not follow that she will still find an outlet for her products? Mr. Bell figures the total annual income of the United Kingdom at £1,900,000,000, or about \$9,500,000,000. Call it £5,000,000 a day, he says, and we

shall not be far wrong. What advantage will come to America and Germany, it is asked, from destroying Great Britain's trade? If they succeed, "this machine that is earning \$25,000,000 a day will have gone." Is it not clear that the real interest of both countries is to encourage Great Britain to buy their commodities in increasing amounts? But, of course, if she buys, she can do so only by selling. It should be noted that, if America and Germany should destroy British trade, they would lose not only the profit which they now derive from selling their goods to her, but, by losing the chance to sell to her any longer, would greatly dislocate their own industries and deprive vast numbers of their population of employment. Meanwhile, Mr. Bell argues, England would still be full of men desiring the necessities and luxuries of life, and willing to pay for them by their physical or mental toil. She would have to find people to take her goods in exchange, and he sees no reason why this should not actually be accomplished. In short, he scouts the prevalent theory that there is not enough trade in the world to go round, and that consequently each nation must push and struggle to get its share, "lest it is all appropriated before we seize our part."

It is reported that the German Steel Syndicate is about to open negotiations with the British and American manufacturers for a delimitation of their respective spheres of action in the world's markets. The syndicate has been under contemplation for nearly a year, but it was only recently that an organization was effected. It is to have control until June 30, 1907, and it takes the place of a number of previous organizations looking to a community of interest in the iron and steel industries. Of the twenty-eight establishments originally mentioned in connection with the proposed Trust, all but two large companies had, at last accounts, decided to take part in the deal; so that, as combines go, the German Steel Syndicate may be said to represent more than an average degree of unanimity among producers. Its formation denotes the extent to which competition was carried in the recent boom period in this country and Europe. It also indicates that the German manufacturers have not only ceased to feel the alarm which they were expressing not long ago over the "American peril," but are prepared to carry the war into Africa. This is the logical outcome of the industrial developments of recent years. The situation has at last progressed beyond the establishment of national Trusts. It has entered the international stage. The German Trust is pitted against the American Trust, and the need of some sort of agreement between them is beginning to be keenly felt.

On Monday the British Government was solemnly absolved, in both houses, from any blame in connection with the Transvaal Chinese Labor act. The new slavery was approved by a strictly party vote, though a handful of Unionists refused to support the compound system, and Major Seeley, who had served in South Africa, accompanied his dissenting vote with the announcement of his resignation as a Unionist member. Such an action indicates the kind of moral indignation that the labor bill has aroused, even in Government circles. Besides the natural repugnance to any system of forced contract labor, there is an uneasy feeling that it is almost impossible to throw the promised safeguards about the coolie traffic. Lord Milner's memoranda abound in criticism of the details of the act; the Liberals point to appalling percentages of mortality in existing compounds. Meanwhile, the Government has nothing better to say than that the Cape has decided that the mines must be worked. The very sensitiveness of the Ministry is proof enough to the country that, for the sake of the Transvaal gold, it is getting into dirty business. That instinct will damage Mr. Balfour seriously; against it perfunctory majorities like that of Monday are of little political weight.

Another protest by Austria and Russia against the obstacles raised to the reform of the Turkish gendarmerie fully bears out the apprehensions of those who have utterly distrusted the Mürzsteg plan. It was always absurd to imagine that European officers could control the troops of the Sultan unless some power were at hand to protect these officers against their own troops. In other words, no reform of the Macedonian region which does not take it out of the Sultan's jurisdiction is of any worth. The English Balkan Committee has pronounced definitely for a Governor-General holding directly from the European Concert. Unless that be done, we may expect a renewal of the horrors of last year. Intermittently, so far as winter has permitted, the Turks have continued the proscription, and the time is approaching for the revolutionary komitadjis to reassemble. The dissatisfaction of Russia and Austria is natural and very significant; for they of all the Powers should be bound to optimism. But it is clear that the Balkan situation is beyond their power to settle. For a year or more they have acted as the accredited agents of civilization in the Balkans, and have accomplished nothing. It is time their unprofitable stewardship were vacated in favor of stronger hearts and hands.

The war-time elections in Japan have resulted in a marked decrease of the

Constitutional Political Association (*Seiyu-kai*), and in a greater increase of the Independents. In a lower House of three hundred, one hundred new members have been returned. The *Seiyu-kai* remains the largest political group at 134, against 187 in the former Diet, while the Independents have virtually the same strength, 132, against a former 59. This noteworthy gain has been made at the expense of the *Seiyu-kai* and the Progressives. The return of so many Independent members is due partly to disgust with the corruption of the politicians making up the *Seiyu-kai*, but, even more, to the new impetus to patriotism brought about by the war. For the Independents are conservative as regards maintaining all Japanese traditions, while the *Seiyu-kai* is the commercial party and committed more or less to imitation of Western methods. This party has naturally lost its favorite issue of administrative economy, since the war has made the raising of revenue not a matter of debate, but of compulsion. So the issue of retrenchment on which the Katsura Cabinet was bitterly opposed is suspended for the present, and the Imperial Diet relapses into a congeries of groups which the war spirit will undoubtedly hold together for a time.

The plans of the Japanese Government for financing the war have been made public. They contemplate allowing \$290,000,000 for this purpose, including \$20,000,000 special reserve. Of this amount, \$230,000,000 is to be obtained from loans, \$35,000,000 from increased taxation, and the remainder from the surplus revenue. The Cabinet has submitted proposals to a special Diet now in session, favoring an extension of the tobacco monopoly so as to include the manufactured product, and the creation of a salt monopoly. This plan will involve a heavy expenditure for the purchase of private tobacco-manufacturing concerns. The Cabinet suggests increased taxes on land, incomes, business, wine, sugar, soy, stock exchanges, mining, customs, and stamps, and new ones are created on silk, piece goods, kerosene, and woollens, the estimated total being \$34,000,000. The cost of the war to the end of March is placed at \$78,000,000, and it is estimated that from then to the end of the year \$190,000,000 will be required, besides a special war reserve of \$20,000,000. The proposed loans will probably be issued under the imperial ordinance of December 29, sanctioning short-time issues. The same ordinance authorized the Government to draw freely upon all funds in the Treasury's special account, but these funds must eventually be restored. In other words, Japan has been able to find cash with which to begin the war, but is now confronted with the serious problem of obtaining the means to carry it on.

THE PENSION INIQUITY.

No Service Pension bill will be passed by Congress—so it was officially announced from Washington on Thursday. But this did not mean that a courageous and high-minded President had resolutely thrown down the gauntlet to the Grand Army mendicants, and to those truckling politicians of his own party who would once more buy the votes of veterans at the outset of a Presidential campaign. On the contrary, it proclaimed a shameful surrender. The "necessity" for a service pension bill has been averted "by a change in the administration of existing law." In other words, both Congress and the country having shown plainly enough that they did not care to have further pension laws placed upon the statute-books, the same end has been attained by an unexampled perversion of the existing pension rules. The President, through his Commissioner, has presumed to read into them a construction which Congress never intended to allow, and thus is enabled to give notice that hereafter every veteran over sixty-two years of age will be pensioned.

The act of June 27, 1890, allotted to all veterans of ninety days' service who were wholly or partly disabled from self-support a pension of from six to twelve dollars, proportioned to such disability. Of this "due proof" was required. The act was vague and absurd. To apply it at all, the Executive interpreted it in a manner of very doubtful legality. Applicants of sixty-five years were assumed to be entitled to the minor pension of \$6 per month, applicants of seventy-five to the major pension of \$12. By the simple expedient of lowering the age of disability to sixty-two, all Civil War veterans are now taken in. The original ruling was a discreditable subterfuge. Mr. Roosevelt's modification of it is outrageous, for the presentation of a certificate of age cannot fairly be regarded as "due proof" of anything but age.

In itself a service pension is demoralizing enough. It in no way distinguishes between the worthless bummer who skulked when his regiment fought, and the brave soldier who served on the great battlefields. It does not differentiate between the veteran of a dozen campaigns and the ninety-day soldier who passed his time in a recruiting camp, any more than it does between the millionaire and the day laborer, the physically vigorous and the physically incapacitated. To every man who served ninety days and has passed his sixty-second birthday, Mr. Ware says, "Step up to our pension counter and help yourself; there is no physical examination, and no inquiry as to the value or character of your service."

Scandalous as all this is, the shocking feature of the new ruling is the way the Executive has thereby usurped the func-

tion of Congress. At no time has the national legislature openly declared for a service pension for veterans of the civil war. The mere introduction of Mr. Sulloway's bill on January 27 was sufficient to bring out such a chorus of protests from all newspapers which recognized the seriousness of this year's raid upon the Treasury, that there was a prompt change of opinion among the Republican leaders in regard to its advisability. It was not considered possible that in this emergency Mr. Roosevelt would uphold the hands of the pension-grabbers, or that he would do so by reading into laws passed years ago the present intentions of his party leaders in their anxiety for votes. His willingness to abuse his undoubted right to interpret the statutes of Congress is another sign of what has been termed his "lawlessness of mind," clearly illustrated in his unwarranted use of Government vessels for the pleasure of himself and his family, and in the whole conduct of the Panama intrigue.

In defence of his revolutionary order Mr. Ware avers that it will save the Government a good deal of time and money by doing away with hundreds of thousands of examinations. Just as if that very abolition of tests did not throw the doors open to the unworthy! What is the cost of examinations compared to the demoralizing effect upon the people of seeing unworthy men feeding at the public trough? But Mr. Ware attempts to justify the wholesale pensioning by analogy with the treatment of the Mexican war survivors. "It would seem," he says, according to the *Tribune*, "that if, thirty-nine years after the expiration of service, a Mexican war soldier was entitled to a pension at sixty-two years, . . . to soldiers of the civil war, who fought vastly more and longer, at least as good a rule ought to apply." The sophistry of all this is evident. Because Congress was, by due process of law, over-liberal to veterans of our attack upon Mexico, is any soldier of any other war "entitled" to a like liberality without law? If he is, we may look in 1937 for a service pension for all our Spanish war veterans, 22 per cent. of whom have already applied for aid.

But a service pension through an arbitrary bureau ruling will no more satisfy the Grand Army or the pension attorneys than will any of the other concessions which have from time to time been made to the pension-grabbers. For a year or so they may rest content. Then will come the demand for a minimum of \$10 or \$12 where \$6 is now granted. Never before has so insolent a pension demand upon the Treasury been so quickly complied with. It took the Grand Army until last summer to nerve itself to this step. If President and Congress are so compliant and statutes so readily stretched, why stop now? Have not the veterans the right to feel that they own the Government and can

bend it to their will? When the Dependent Pension bill of 1890 was passed we predicted that it would lead up to a service pension law, but the suggestion was ridiculed as the vision of a pessimist. But where is the line to be drawn? A conservative estimate of the cost of the Sulloway bill put it at more than fifty millions. Now the public is assured, precisely as if it had not a grain of common sense, that the same expenditure made by administrative order will cost only two or three or five millions a year.

A Senate inquiry into the executive order was inevitable. The Washington correspondents speak of "consternation" among the Republican Senators, who are not overscrupulous after the fashion of whimpering Mugwumps. When they question the President it is not for any ordinary stretching of his powers; the very form of the challenge suggests the iniquity it searches out. "How much will it cost?" the Senate asks. Never before, we believe, has a President presumed to give away millions of the public moneys without a line in the statutes which clearly justifies that expenditure.

POLYGAMY MANDATORY.

No clear understanding of the attitude of the Mormon Church of to-day, as exhibited in its effort to place one of its leaders in the United States Senate, and in the testimony given before the Senate committee at Washington, can be had without a knowledge of the actual relation which the doctrine of polygamy bears to the Church. President Smith, in his recent testimony, stated that the doctrine was merely permissive, not mandatory, and this is probably the general impression. The truth is, however, that the doctrine is as obligatory as any other Mormon doctrine, and it is because of this that the Church has made, and is still making, so desperate a fight to prevent any action which will render the practice of polygamy actually impossible. The obligatory character of polygamy was set forth in unmistakable language in the "revelation" which made known the doctrine to the Church and has been taught ever since. The language used in the "revelation" is as follows:

"For, behold! I reveal to you a new and everlasting covenant; and if ye abide not that covenant, then are ye damned; for no one can reject this covenant and be permitted to enter my glory. . . . He that receiveth a fulness thereof must and shall abide the law, or he shall be damned, saith the Lord God."

The Mormon leaders made no concealment of their acceptance of the obligatory character of this "revelation" up to the day of Woodruff's manifesto. Orson Pratt, who was selected to make the open announcement of the doctrine to the Church in Utah, emphasized the language of the "revelation." "Now let me inquire," said he to the conference,

"what will become of those individuals who have this law taught unto them in plainness, if they reject it. I will tell you: They will be damned, saith the Lord, in the revelation he hath given us. Why? Because where much is given, much is required."

When Schuyler Colfax visited Utah, after the civil war, he had a formal interview with Brigham Young on the subject of polygamy, hoping to get the credit of effecting its abolition. He proposed to Young that the Church obtain a later revelation doing away with the practice without Federal interference, just as some of the slave States had abolished slavery of their own accord. But the Church retorted in its official organ:

"As a people we view every revelation from the Lord as sacred. Polygamy was not of our seeking. It came to us from heaven, and we recognized it, and still do, the voice of Him whose right it is, not only to teach us, but to dictate and teach all men. Gentiles talk of revelations given and of receiving counter revelations to forbid what has been commanded, as if man was the sole author, originator, and designer of them. Do they wish to brand a whole people with the foul stigma of hypocrisy?"

Brigham Young, on the same occasion, condemning a proposition of some of the flock to drop Smith as a prophet and to lay out a new course, was quite as emphatic: "What I have received from the Lord I have received by Joseph Smith. If I drop him, I must drop these principles."

In 1885, some years after the enactment of the Edmunds law, and when the leaders were defying that enactment in every possible way, the Church restated its position in one of the formal "epistles" that are addressed to the flock from time to time, using this emphatic language:

"We did not reveal celestial marriage. We cannot withdraw or renounce it. God revealed it, and He has promised to maintain it, and to bless those who obey it. Whatever fate, then, may threaten us, there is but one course for men of God to take—that is, to keep inviolate the holy covenants they have made in the presence of God and angels. . . . We may say, however, that if any man or woman expects to enter into the celestial kingdom of our God without making sacrifices, and without being tested to the very uttermost, they have not understood the Gospel."

Woodruff's manifesto was wrung from the Church when it was realized that further open defiance of the law meant the loss of all the rights of citizenship, and when, on the other hand, some form of acquiescence in a different order of things promised Statehood, and with it that freedom from legal interference with polygamy that has been enjoyed in Utah as a State. But that famous manifesto was in no sense a retraction of the former principles underlying the doctrine of polygamy. It began by declaring, "in the most solemn manner," that the statement of the Utah Commission, in their last report, that plural marriages were still solemnized in Utah

was false—a declaration which the Commission met in their next report with the reply that they restated the fact, and added that "three additional cases were reported a few days after the report was formulated." The manifesto next set forth Woodruff's intention to submit to the laws of Congress, and closed as follows: "There is nothing in my teaching to the Church, or in those of my associates, during the time specified [the past year] which can be reasonably construed to inculcate or encourage polygamy; and when any elder of the Church has used language which appeared to convey such teaching he has been promptly reproved. And I now publicly declare that my advice to the Latter-Day Saints is to refrain from contracting any marriage forbidden by the laws of the land."

The interpretation of this manifesto by the heads of the Church has been made clear by the investigation in progress in Washington. Their avowals show to their flock that Smith's command in regard to polygamy is still piously observed just so far as it is safe to do so. They are simply holding out to all the members of the flock the hope that the time will come when all may escape damnation by obeying the command. It is this historical light on Mormonism which has convinced many students of the subject that the deadliest blow that can be given to the system will be the adoption of a Constitutional amendment declaring polygamy to be a crime to be dealt with by the Federal courts, thus taking it from the jurisdiction of Mormon State juries. This, it is argued, will put an end to the practice, and compel the Church to drop the doctrine or to remove to a new field where it can be taught and carried out unchecked.

PRESIDENT ELIOT AT SEVENTY.

"Nature's patient ways shame hasty little man," a sentence from one of President Eliot's lectures, is the keynote to much of his work, for he has made nature's patient ways his own. He celebrated on Sunday his seventieth birthday, and this year also marks the thirty-fifth anniversary of his presidency of Harvard. For an estimate of his achievements this is neither the place nor the time: the limits of an editorial article are too narrow, and his labors are, we trust, far from an end. *Seru in colum redeat.* But we add our hearty congratulations to those of Harvard graduates, friends of learning from all colleges and schools, and worthy citizens in every walk of life; and we seize this moment as suitable for dwelling on two or three aspects of President Eliot's career. He stands among the foremost citizens of the United States; were there a common denominator by which one could measure men of widely different talents and callings, he might rank the very

first. This success is indubitably due in large part to a power which has wrought, like the force of a glacier, without haste and without rest.

It is as an educator that he enjoys the widest fame. For more than a third of a century—a period of unexampled material progress—in a country which has leaped forward rather than developed, he has been at the head of our oldest and richest university. He has thus enjoyed a unique opportunity to set his stamp upon the educational system of a nation; and this opportunity he has employed to the uttermost. The principles which he intended to follow he laid down with precision in his Inaugural Address in 1869; from those principles he has never swerved. He declared: "This university recognizes no real antagonism between literature and science, and consents to no such narrow alternatives as mathematics or classics, science or metaphysics. We would have them all, and at their best." Against the old hard and fast curriculum—"one primer, one catechism, one rod for all children"—he set his face unflinchingly, and proceeded to build up the elective system, which at Harvard already rested on a firm foundation. The opposition within his faculty and without was determined, sometimes bitter. His theory that "a well-instructed youth of eighteen can select for himself—not for any other boy, or for the fictitious universal boy, but for himself alone—a better course of study than any college faculty, or any wise man who does not know him and his ancestors and his previous life, can possibly select for him"—this theory was assailed and ridiculed as individualism run mad. But President Eliot held to his course, and he has seen his theory accepted in every important college of the country. He has weathered the storm that raged about him twenty years ago, and has anchored in the desired haven.

As champion of a movement which put sciences and modern languages in "fair competition" with the classics, he has urged unceasingly more skilful instruction in these new subjects. In his Inaugural, he bluntly told the "scientific scoffers at gerund-grinding" that "the prevailing methods of teaching science, the world over, are less intelligent than the methods of teaching language." Experimentation in the laboratory, original investigation, drill in accurate observation, he has made the burden of many addresses and reports. Moreover, it is owing largely to his efforts that the standard of professional schools has been raised, and that secondary and grammar schools are now reorganizing their programmes according to the modern idea of developing the aptitudes of the individual. But it is upon English that he has laid the greatest stress. He began his presidency by quoting Locke's complaint as to the neglect of the mother-tongue,

and he has returned to the theme again and again. At Harvard he has built up an English department that has been a stimulus to every other college and to schools of all grades.

In this vast enterprise, President Eliot himself, the moving spirit, has had neither the authority nor the will to force the action of faculties or committees. More than once he has seen his opinions thrown into the arena of open debate and voted down. But, convinced that his views, if sound, will ultimately triumph, he has waited with Olympian calm for the march of events. Though the immediate effect of the changes has in some cases seemed to be chaos, he has never been discouraged; he has known that, to rearrange a curriculum, to train competent instructors in new subjects, to establish traditions of mental discipline, will be the task of generations yet to come.

In his discussion of public questions he has insisted upon the right of the individual to attain his highest intellectual and moral development, unchecked by a cast-iron regimen of studies or by intolerance in church or state. His criticisms of organized labor have expressed the conviction of our sanest publicists, that "democracy must profoundly distrust the labor union's too frequent effort to restrict the efficiency and the output of the individual workman." This doctrine of individualism, a tenet of the liberals of the old school, is falling into temporary decay; it is opposed by certain captains of industry who want to crush out the individual and pile merger upon merger; it is opposed by the trade unionists, who condemn all laborers to the lock-step; yet President Eliot has steadily, with candor and courage, striven for the basic principle of our Declaration of Independence.

These are the achievements, these the qualities, that have won him, year by year, a wider recognition; have transmuted cold respect into affection. In the earlier days of his presidency a reserve of manner, absorption in details of administration, and a frank indifference to the gusts of undergraduate sentiment made students regard him with an uncomfortable awe, as if he were a sort of Iron Chancellor in an empire of education, or—to recur to a former comparison—as if he were really a glacier. Time has proved the falsity of this first impression; has shown that no college president has endured with more serenity and good humor the criticism of his colleagues; that the springs of his kindness are as unfailing as the waters that melt from the eternal ice. He has reached the goal of his ambition. In describing Dr. Asa Gray's life as "happy," he declared: "It is the greatest of human rewards to be enfolded, as years advance, in an atmosphere of honor, gratitude, and love." That greatest of rewards President Eliot himself has reaped in full measure, while

his eye is not dim nor his natural force abated.

RUSSIA AND THE JEWS.

Russian statesmen are reported to be puzzled over the surprising unanimity with which the bulk of the American people has given its sympathies to the Japanese in the war in the East. Have we not, they ask, been friendly to the United States at all times, and particularly during its period of storm and stress? And are we not Christians, battling with pagans whose reputation for honesty and trustworthiness is below that of the Chinese? Have we not stood for international peace and comity? To these questions there are many possible replies. We will confine ourselves to one. Russia is the only country which to-day excludes American-born citizens solely because of their religious belief. Be a Jew ever so worthy, be he well educated, philanthropic, a power in the financial or industrial world, he is still forbidden to cross the Russian boundaries without special permission, even if he would travel merely for pleasure and information. To any one of the Hebrew faith applying for a passport the State Department has a stereotyped reply, one clause of which reads as follows:

"The laws of Russia also exclude from Russian territory, except by special permission, all people of Jewish faith, and while this Government has been endeavoring for some years past to secure a relaxation of this enactment, it is only proper to warn those who are within the category to which they refer, that it has not yet been able to secure from the Russian Government a promise of uniform treatment for all American travellers in Russia without regard to their religious faith or place of birth."

As if this were not humiliating enough for a Government which prides itself on the protection it extends to its citizens resident in China and less civilized quarters of the globe, the State Department must confess that even the "special permission" to which it refers is no bar to insult and ill-treatment after the Russian border has once been crossed.

As for the Russian-born Hebrew, he is, in one respect, on the same footing with men of other faiths born subjects of the Czar. Unless that ruler's permission is obtained, any Russian citizen who becomes a citizen of another country is liable under Russian law to the loss of all his civil rights and to perpetual banishment from the Empire; and he cannot apply for a permit to emigrate unless he has completed his military service. Should he return to visit his kindred, he faces deportation to Siberia, even if he left his native land before reaching the age of conscription. It is this which explains the presence among us of thousands of unnaturalized Finns who, dearly as they would like to become citizens of their adopted country, cannot pay the price of permanent

separation from their relatives and friends in Finland which such a step would entail.

In other respects the treatment of the Russian Hebrew who has sought freer climes is much harsher than those of different religious beliefs. He must apply directly to the Russian Ministry of the Interior for permission to reenter Russia, and the State Department will not act as an intermediary for him. Rare are the cases in which a naturalized Hebrew can obtain the consent of the Minister of the Interior. His business relations with Russia may be of such importance as to require frequent visits to St. Petersburg or Moscow, but generally neither this plea nor any other avails him. The truth is, that the Russian Government looks upon its Jews as persons who are only to be tolerated when they are not massacred. They are neither citizens nor free men in the sense that they may pass freely from one occupation to another and live where they choose. Even their habitations are assigned to them, as to the morally unclean. The very extent to which the Jew may have his children educated is fixed by the autocratic Government above him; and if he sends his sons and daughters to study at foreign universities, they are subject to Russian espionage, and—as was the case in Berlin last week—are liable to expulsion even from the foreign country, if they protest against the spies who dog their footsteps while they seek the knowledge denied to no one in this country.

With Russia's treatment of its own within its borders, the United States, as a nation, can have, of course, no active concern. To such as would escape persecution and oppression our doors are open, and will, we trust, remain so. But with Russia's behavior towards naturalized or native-born American citizens within its borders, we are directly concerned. In 1832 a treaty was concluded between the two countries, the very first article of which stated that "there shall be between the territories of the high contracting parties a reciprocal liberty of commerce and navigation. The inhabitants of their respective States shall mutually have liberty to enter the ports, places, and rivers of the territories of each party wherever foreign commerce is permitted. They shall be at liberty to sojourn and reside in all parts whatsoever of said territories, in order to attend to their affairs, and they shall enjoy to that effect the same security and protection as natives of the country wherein they reside." This solemn guarantee has been persistently and deliberately violated, solely because of religious intolerance and racial hatred. The State Department not only confesses the fact, but admits that it has never been able to induce Russia to negotiate a treaty which should treat in detail of the rights of

American citizens of Russian birth on their return to their native land. Here is a great opportunity for Mr. Hay's skillful diplomacy to add one more to his long list of triumphs; and for Russia to soften the prevailing anti-Russian spirit in this country by respecting the treaty she so steadily ignores.

THE MIDDLE STATES CONVENTION OF HISTORY TEACHERS.

PHILADELPHIA, March 17, 1904.

The second annual convention of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland was held in Philadelphia on March 11 and 12. The Association was organized in 1901 as the result of a conference of those interested in the study and teaching of history, and its first regular meeting was held at Columbia University in 1903. As far back as 1883 the first coöperative attempt had been made to improve the teaching of history in America through the efforts of President (then Professor) G. Stanley Hall. In undertaking the editorship of a pedagogical library, he stated that history was chosen for the subject of the initial volume because, after much observation in the schoolrooms of many of the larger cities in the Eastern part of the country, he was convinced that no subject so widely taught was, on the whole, taught so poorly. The volume published comprised a translation of Diesterweg's 'Methods of Teaching History,' with additional chapters contributed by six distinguished university professors or writers of history. As a pioneer essay it is entitled to lasting memory, even though it is half forgotten and it is at least a question whether any of the contributing writers would to-day give the same content to his article as that which he gave it twenty-one years ago. In the wake of it came the conference of the Committee of Ten at the University of Wisconsin eleven years ago, the consequent Columbia conference, and the appointment of the Committee of Seven. It has been the interest in history awakened in part by the reports of these and other committees that has led to the association of the history teachers of New England and of the North Central States, of Nebraska, California, of Indiana, of Chicago, and of New York city.

What have been the fruits of these past years of united work? A consistent, logical course in history has been planned for the secondary schools, and has been already widely adopted. In place of detached, isolated courses given haphazard in unchronological order, we have a course based on the theory that history is the study of development. A natural result of this has been the practical adoption of uniform requirements for admission to college, and this in turn has made possible the adoption of the system of uniform entrance examination questions. Thus history has been accorded a permanent place in the curriculum, and if the classicists and scientists could but realize that history does not supplant the older subjects, but serves as a unifying force to make the curriculum an organic whole, a more hearty welcome would be given the newcomer.

What remains to be done? One of the most important duties would seem to be,

to press on the attention of those having the appointing power, that an essential qualification of those whom they select to teach history should be some knowledge of the subject to be taught. The protest against present conditions is not superfluous; current announcements show that one ambitious school, in one of the most famous New England towns, has a teacher who gives instruction in music, painting, drawing, biology, and history; that in one large city high school the classes in history are heard by the musical critic of one of the daily papers; that, in another, history has been assigned to the general-utility man. A second line of work that needs to be taken up is a consideration of the relation between a consistent course of history in the general secondary schools and that given in college preparatory schools. A large number of schools now have a well-arranged course in history, yet this is made of no effect for its college preparatory class, through the increase in the language requirements made by the colleges, and the regulation requiring all college entrance examinations to be taken within two years prior to admission to college. The schools cannot square the circle—they cannot give a course in ancient history during the first year in the high school, where it logically comes, and yet have the work examined by the colleges within two years of entrance. No better service could be rendered the cause of historical teaching than a presentation to colleges and schools of a satisfactory solution of this very real difficulty.

Ample justification for the formation of another association would seem to be found equally in what has already been accomplished through coöperative effort and in what yet remains to be done. But if there had been any lingering doubts on the part of any one, they must have been dispelled by the success of the recent meeting. The three sessions held appealed alike to college professors of history, to historians and investigators, and to the teachers of history in the secondary schools. The great problems which confront the college professor of history concern the amount and kind of historical instruction that students have had before entering college, the articulation of his own work with this, the nature of the courses required of college students, and the adaptation of advanced to elementary college work, since the college professor must believe that "advanced work in history does not mean studying larger books and more of them." Several of these questions were discussed by Prof. C. H. Haas in a masterly paper on "The Historical Curriculum in Colleges." It was based on an extended study of the history course, whether required of all students or as a prerequisite to other history courses, and showed that while the greatest diversity existed in the universities and colleges of the country, the various required courses were practically reducible to three types—those covering the entire field of general European history, a second type dealing with the history of a single country (usually England or America), and a third, practically a course in mediæval history. The conclusion reached was that, under present conditions, the third type had the weightiest arguments in its favor.

The specific question of what should be the college entrance requirement in history had been dealt with by a committee whose

report was presented by President Austin Scott. The great value of this report consisted in its fresh, original suggestions for a rearrangement of the subject-matter treated in a four-years' high school course. Thus, it would be possible to gain time for Oriental history if the dreary periods of civil strife, both in Greece and in Rome, could be eliminated from the work. Further suggestions included that of closing the year given to mediæval and modern history with the Treaty of Utrecht, and merging the two years given to English and American history into one year of study of the history of the English people from the time of their settlement on English soil, in the fifth century, to their control of the English-speaking world to-day; and a fourth suggestion was made that the year thus gained be given to modern history from the time of the Seven Years' War.

The specific question of the articulation of work in history in colleges and secondary schools was admirably discussed by Dr. James Sullivan, in an exhaustive paper showing that, as far as the present curricula and methods both in schools and in colleges are concerned, there is at present no general articulation. To make such possible, it would be necessary to have an ideal curriculum worked out for the colleges, and to have the question of methods, both in school and in college, thoroughly investigated with a view to making the transition from school to college less abrupt. The following propositions were advanced suggestively as a basis for future study and discussion: That a book commonly used as a text-book in a secondary school should not be used as a text in college; that elementary work in the colleges should show a proper advance over the advanced work in the schools, both as to texts used and as to time required in and out of the classroom; that a proper sequence should be shown in the arrangement of the college courses; that there should be a conscious differentiation of aim of work in secondary school, college, and university; that the work of teaching history in the secondary school or college should not be given over to men who are specialists in other departments; that methods which encourage cramming, in either secondary school or college, should be abandoned; that secondary-school and college teachers should attempt to adapt their methods and their work to the students under their instruction; that courses on methods of instruction in history for colleges should be established for the benefit of those who expect to teach in colleges; that students in history courses in colleges may reasonably be expected to buy more books than they are at present called upon to do.

Investigators and historians found special help in Professor McLaughlin's suggestive account of the historical work undertaken by the Carnegie Institution. This has as yet been largely in the direction of planning for the future. What the historical scholars of the country need is information in regard to the existence and location of historical material, and how this material may be made accessible. The bureau at Washington has already rendered scholars valuable service in this direction, and it bids fair to develop still more along these lines.

It is not too much to say that the Philadelphia meeting was one of more than or-

dinary or local interest in view of the distinguished men who took part in its discussions, and of the far-reaching character of the propositions advanced. It is to be hoped that its success will lead to the formation of similar associations in other sections of the country.

ARCHÆOLOGY IN EGYPT.

CAIRO, February 21, 1904.

For many years, excavations have been carried on in various parts of Egypt under various auspices, and this year is no exception to the rule. Among such as are now in progress, those of the University of California, made possible by the liberality of Mrs. Hearst, yield to none in importance. At Naga ad-Der, opposite the thriving town of Girga, Messrs. Lythgoe and Mace are bringing to a close the work begun several years ago and continued every winter. Here thousands of tombs have been opened, belonging to all periods from prehistoric times to the Twelfth Dynasty. The vast necropolis contains also tombs in an almost unbroken series to the Eighteenth Dynasty, and close by are tombs of the later New Empire, of Ptolemaic and Roman times, while Coptic burials cover nearly the whole site. In the tombs of prehistoric and early dynastic times the bodies were laid on the side and buried in a contracted position, sometimes with the knees almost immediately under the chin. The bodies lay upon a matting and were covered by a second matting. About the graves were twigs to keep the sand from falling in. For the same purpose boards were sometimes used. Terracotta boxes also occur, but not earlier than the First Dynasty. In these early tombs double and even triple interment is common. Some of the graves are quite undisturbed, others have been robbed of whatever articles possessed any value to the robbers, and in many cases the bones of the persons buried are greatly disarranged. It frequently happens that the neck vertebrae are lacking, and the head is more or less out of place. This is due to the fact that the grave-robbler, instead of excavating the entire grave, merely made a hole in the upper matting and removed the necklace of the corpse, often taking the neck, or parts of it, along with the necklace. The examination and comparison of the immense number of interments at this place have proved beyond the possibility of doubt that the disarrangement of the parts of the body occurring in some of the graves is due entirely to subsequent disturbance—not, as has been suggested, to a practice of dismemberment before burial. Additional evidence has also been found proving that the marks of gnawing on some of the bones are due, not to an ancient practice of cannibalism, but to an insect that gnawed the buried remains.

The historical or ethnological results of the excavations at Naga ad-Der are interesting and important. Every part of the human body has been found, so that a systematic study of the physical qualities of the people buried there has been made possible, not for one period only, but through the ages from the earliest times. This has been undertaken by Dr. G. Elliott Smith, who has examined the burials on the spot and has arranged an exhibition of the hu-

man remains from this site at the medical school in Cairo. Since the site offers a continuous series of cemeteries all at the same place, there are no differences of locality to consider. This is important, for as the science of Egyptology advances, it is becoming more and more evident that conditions in the different parts of Egypt were not always the same. Dr. Elliott Smith, after careful study of the human remains, reaches the conclusion that the Egyptian race, as represented at Naga ad-Der, was one single continuous race from the earliest prehistoric times to the Twelfth Dynasty. This result, derived from anatomical study, confirms the same conclusion which the excavators draw from the archaeological evidence gathered from the same tombs. Dr. Elliott Smith's study of skeletons of other periods and skeletons of modern Copts leads him to the further conclusion that the continuity of race in Egypt persists to the present time.

The actual excavation at Naga ad-Der is completed, and Dr. Reisner, the head of the expedition of the University of California, is now busy near the Pyramid of Gizeh, where the University has been granted one-third of the necropolis for excavation. Here, in the valley north of the great cemetery which extends to the west from the Great Pyramid, Dr. Reisner has found a practically untouched cemetery of a much earlier period. The people buried here were poor, for the tombs are simple structures of mud brick, but the results, which supplemented those reached at Naga ad-Der, are sure to prove interesting. West of the Great Pyramid, work has been begun on the systematic clearing of the great necropolis, and about seventy mastabas, containing over three hundred burial pits, are already laid bare. Probably as many more will be uncovered before the work of this year is ended.

It is already evident that there are three distinct periods in the history of the necropolis. The earliest period belongs to the Third Dynasty, the second to the Fourth and Fifth Dynasties, the third to the Sixth and Seventh Dynasties. As yet the extent of the cemetery at each period is not known; but, as the excavations advance, its extent as well as its character at each stage of its history will no doubt be definitely determined. The excavations at Naga ad-Der have shed much light upon the development of the mastaba, and the knowledge gained there is of immediate use in the field by the pyramids. As yet few pits have been opened here, and the portable objects found, the bulk of which will probably go to enrich the museum of the University of California, are therefore few; but eight stone statues of various sizes, some of which are unusually fine, have already come to light. Moreover, one mastaba of the Fourth Dynasty has been opened, the corridor walls of which are adorned with fine reliefs executed on a thin coating of stucco. On some of these reliefs the coloring is still well preserved. Unfortunately, the neighborhood of Cairo is not so free from rain as the regions further up the river, and much of the coloring, as well as some of the stucco, has peeled off. It is also due to the dampness that no wooden statues, many of which were once contained in the serdabs of these mastabas, have been preserved. Besides continuing the work in the cemetery, Dr. Reisner intends to

begin work soon on the temple of the Third Pyramid, which has never been excavated.

At Abusir, between the pyramids of Gizeh and Sakkarah, Dr. Borchardt is continuing the excavations of the Deutsche Orient-Gesellschaft at the pyramid of Ne-woser-re, of the Fifth Dynasty. Here he has laid bare the foundations of the temple belonging to the pyramid, with its paved court, great hall, and storerooms. The approach to the temple from the plain was by a grand causeway of fine masonry. On this causeway was a passage once not only protected by a wall on each side, but actually roofed over. Those who passed to or from the temple were therefore effectually prevented from enjoying the really beautiful view across the desert and the green plain to the hills at the other side of the valley. Some of the reliefs of the lower part of the passage, with unusual representations of the King and his enemies, are still *in situ*. At the foot of the causeway was a huge gateway, twenty by thirty metres in extent, which has not yet been completely laid bare. Enough has, however, already come to light to give some idea of the general arrangement. The structure is much grander than the gateway by the pyramid of Onnos at Sakkarah, and may, when the excavation is completed, throw light upon the arrangement of that building.

At Sakkarah Miss Murray and Miss Handard are making facsimile drawings of the reliefs in the tombs for the Egypt Exploration Fund, and Mr. Weigel, at the expense of Dr. von Bissing, is copying and photographing the reliefs. Mr. Davies is making facsimiles of the more important reliefs in the tombs at Tell el-Amarna for the Archaeological Survey of the Egypt Exploration Fund. Such work is of great importance, for, even in Egypt, works of sculpture, and still more paintings, are sure to suffer after excavation. Messrs. Grenfell and Hunt are this winter again at Oxyrrhynchus, where they are finding many papyri, some of which are reported to be of great literary interest.

The famous rock-cut tombs at Beni Hasan belonged to great princes of the Middle Empire. On the slope below are many less pretentious tombs of officials and other members of the upper middle class of the same period. Here Mr. John Garstang, assisted by Mr. Harold Jones, has excavated about eight hundred tombs for the benefit of the University of Liverpool. He has found, besides skeletons, pottery, alabaster vessels, and less important objects, a number of models of boats, two feet or more in length, with their crews, oars, masts, sails, and steering-gear wonderfully preserved. The weapons of the men are still lying on the deck. One model is that of a covered harem boat, in which sits a woman holding a mirror in her hand. Several models of granaries have also been found. In these the slaves are conveying the grain to the various compartments where it is to be stored, and realism is carried so far that the actual grain is contained in the storehouses. Two other interesting objects are a wooden statuette about twenty inches high, with well-preserved color, found in a tomb of the Fifth Dynasty, near the Speos Artemidos, and a fine wooden statuette of the Middle Empire about nine inches high. Mr. Garstang has also laid bare the floor of the front part of the Speos Artemidos, and is now clearing a number of shaft tombs of

the Middle Empire in that neighborhood and opening some graves in the low ground near the well-known cat cemetery.

Professor Petrie has been digging for the Egypt Exploration Fund at Henassi, near Beni Suef, and reports that he has found older foundations of the temple of Ramses II. of five different periods one above another. In the ruins of the temple he discovered a colossal statue of perhaps the Twelfth Dynasty. He has also found many gold, silver, and copper Byzantine coins. Coptic buildings in this neighborhood, among them what appears to have been a bishop's palace, with interesting paintings, have also been investigated, and Professor Petrie has excavated for smaller antiquities in several cemeteries near Henassi, but without very important results. About a fortnight ago he sent Mr. Carelli with thirteen men to Buto, near Alexandria, but whether the excavations there are meeting with success is as yet unknown.

In the neighborhood of Luxor, excavators are busy this winter at several points. Mr. Naville, excavating for the Egypt Exploration Fund, at Der el-bahri, has found a small temple of the Middle Empire so closely resembling the great temple of Queen Hatshepsut that it may well be the model of that remarkable building. At the Ramesseum, Mr. Carter, Inspector of antiquities, is carrying on extensive excavations with the purpose of laying bare all the surrounding buildings. These are very numerous—so numerous and various that the site, when fully excavated, will probably be almost, as it were, an Egyptian Pompeii. At Karnak the ground between the pylons at the back of the temple of Ramses III. is being cleared by the *Services des Antiquités*. Mr. Theodore M. Davis is still excavating the tomb of Queen Hatshepsut, where work was begun over two years ago. The tomb is already cleared to a depth of eight hundred feet, but the end is not yet reached. This excavation is supervised by Mr. Carter. Other less creditable excavation is being carried on by Mr. Mond, a wealthy Englishman of German Jewish extraction, who has obtained a concession from the authorities. His relis, or overseer, is said to be the brother of a dealer in antiquities at Luxor, and various objects from these excavations are offered for sale at Luxor. It is a pity that permission to excavate is granted to irresponsible persons.

The *Services des Antiquités* deserve in general great credit for the care that is now taken for the preservation of ancient monuments and the convenience of visitors. The more important monuments are carefully enclosed and guarded to protect them from defacement. The tombs of the kings, opposite Luxor, in which the colors of the reliefs are so marvellously well preserved, are lighted by electricity, and the use of other artificial light is forbidden, that the colors may not be injured by smoke or soot. It would be well if similar measures could be taken to protect the decorations in the tombs at Sakkarah. At Abydos, the temple of Seti I., the reliefs of which are the finest temple reliefs in Egypt, is being repaired, the blocks of limestone being taken, in part at least, from the ruins of other ancient structures. It is gratifying to see that the great monuments of Egypt, which have suffered so much at the hands of modern visitors, are now being intelligently, even if not yet perfectly, cared for.

One group of monuments is, however,

doomed to speedy destruction. Philae is still beautiful, but the greater part of the island is under water even now, and the water is not so high as it was earlier in the year. The so-called kiosk or bed of Pharaoh, which used to stand on an eminence high above the river, is now at the water's edge, while the long colonnades are submerged half way to the capitals. If the height of the great dam is, as is proposed, to be increased by some sixteen feet, the temples of Philae will soon be things of the past. It is true that they are late structures, and that they add little to the world's knowledge of Egyptian art or civilization; but, taken together, in their beautiful surroundings, they were, and are even now, the most charming group of ancient buildings in Egypt. One cannot refrain from lamenting over their destruction, even though the great dam has already added 500,000 acres to the arable land of Egypt and is expected to add at least 500,000 acres more.

Here in Cairo the great and constantly growing collection of antiquities, after having sojourned at Bulak and then at Gizeh, is at last permanently housed in the new Egyptian museum. The antiquities are for the most part already arranged, though no doubt various changes will be necessary from time to time. In many respects the new building is admirable. It is large and airy, and most of the exhibition rooms are lighted from above. In some of the rooms on the ground floor the light is insufficient. One is forced to admit that the objects exposed seem to be arranged more or less to fit the building, as if the building were the chief thing rather than its contents, and there is an unfortunate dearth of rooms in which serious scholars can work undisturbed and with good light on papyri or inscriptions. But these defects may perhaps be remedied as time goes on. For the present it is cause for thanksgiving that the magnificent collection is exhibited in a dignified, spacious, safe, and dry building.

The Arabian Museum in the Bab el-Khalk is now completed, and the collection of Arabian antiquities was moved into its permanent home some weeks ago. Just now the Khedivial library, with its important manuscripts and miniatures, is being arranged in the upper story of the same building. Students of Arabian art and antiquities will find the new arrangement a great improvement, and there is every reason to hope that the collection of antiquities will grow now that it has a permanent and spacious home. H. N. F.

Correspondence.

NOTIFICATION OF WAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have waited a little after reading Mr. Sargent Holland's reply to me, in the hope that some other pundit would preach more comfortable doctrine. Having waited in vain, I suppose I must resign myself to the belief that there is nothing in public law to prevent one nation from suddenly attacking another without notification of war. We seem, in this respect, to have gone back since the days of the Romans, who declared war in the most

formal manner, clearly specifying the cause, and giving ample notice to the enemy. There is not much comfort in the suggestion that great predatory powers may be trusted to abstain from outrage. It seems to be clearly proved that the strenuous person who is now President of the United States deliberately and insistently proposed to destroy a Spanish fleet at sea when his country was at peace with Spain.

It is supposed that Russia attacked the Turkish squadron at Sinope without notice of war. This is a mistake. The state of war had existed between the two Powers on the notification of Turkey for a full month previous to that affair. Of war between Russia and the allies of Turkey there had long been ample warning on both sides, and at last there were regular manifestoes.

PACIFICUS.

COLLEGE ATHLETICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If college athletes were allowed to play for money during vacation, as some propose, it takes no special gift of foresight to disclose two inevitable results. The first is that a very large number of them would do so. Their intense interest in the sport would lead to it, the chance to make a little money would also have its weight, and the value of the practice towards successful work on the college team during the year to come would lead other students (if not instructors as well) to exert a strong pressure in the same direction. The second result would be that the permitted summer pay would immediately become the dishonest disguise for what would be in reality remuneration for work on the college team during the collegiate year.

Professor MacDonald is thoroughly right in the assertion that the real question is simply whether any distinction is to be maintained between college and professional sports. Are the ideals and methods of professional athletics such that college authorities are warranted in promoting their introduction into college life? Would the average parent of a college student of today be contented to see his son directly influenced by college policy in this matter towards the conclusion that the life of the professional athlete would be a desirable career for him to follow after graduation? Do past history and present conditions warrant the conclusion that there is no material distinction in respectability between sport as a permanently accepted profession and sport as a pleasurable means to that sanity of mind and body which the young man needs while in college, in order to pursue his studies successfully and fit himself for some serious occupation in after life?

The cause of college athletics as a matter of intercollegiate rivalry has no worse enemy than he who counsels a drop to the professional level. To heed such counsel would be the signal for a reaction which would for a time endanger the very existence of sports which are of the highest value if conducted on a thoroughly honest and non-professional basis.

W. H. JOHNSON.

THE BUCKTAIL BARDS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The authorship of the 'Bucktail Bards,' issued in 1819 as 'The State Triumvirate,' has never, I believe, been claimed, but is usually attributed to Julian C. Verplanck. Two pieces of evidence have recently come to my attention. One, a letter from Johnston Verplanck to Martin Van Buren, is precise on this point. It is dated December 25, 1819, the very month in which the 'Triumvirate' made its appearance.

"With this you will receive a copy of the 'Bucktail Bards.' Dick Shift you will find in a more respectable dress, and the epistles of Pindar Puff somewhat improved. J. Duer is, as you know, the author of the first and G. C. Verplanck of the last, as also of the Prolegomena, etc. We shall send some of the numbers to Albany, and trust you will lend us your aid in giving an extensive circulation to what will annoy and injure Clinton more than any other mode of attack."

In the Library of Congress is a copy of 'The State Triumvirate' containing some manuscript notes written in 1838, or nearly twenty years after the publication. Dick Shift is said to be Thomas J. Oakley. This Federalist supported Clinton and received the office of Attorney-General, vice Martin Van Buren, removed. "The State Triumvirate" consisted of Judge Ambrose Spencer, De Witt Clinton, and one called in the poem "Fallacio," whose name is not given, but I believe him to have been Judge William W. Van Ness, against whom articles of impeachment were brought by the Federalists in the next year. One of the manuscript notes is as follows:

"Rudolph Bunner. One of the authors of this book. A wit and scholar, and considered a 'promising man' till the day of his death, which took place about a year ago (1837). In Congress about ten years ago. General Jackson's inaugural address is attributed to his pen. John Randolph considered him out of the most brilliant men of his time. A Federalist—as were Duer and Verplanck, the other authors—until about the date of this book, when they all 'ratted' in company with other distinguished Federalists. They called themselves the 'forty high-minded,' their enemies called them the 'Forty Thieves.'"

Bunner is mentioned in Duer's poem—"What wicked jests had uttered Bonnor"—but this does not militate against his having had a share in the book.

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

WASHINGTON, March 15, 1904.

Notes.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce that they will shortly issue in one volume a reprint of Patrick Gass's Journal of the Lewis and Clark Expedition, edited by Dr. James K. Hosmer, and uniform in style with the publishers' library edition of Lewis and Clark.

Herbert S. Stone & Co., Chicago, have nearly ready 'The World's Painters,' by James William Pattison.

'Our West India Neighbors,' by Frederick A. Ober, is in the press of James Pott & Co.

We are glad to learn that the great fire in Baltimore on February 7 spared the plates of the John Murphy Company, many of which were stored out of the city. This veteran publishing firm is temporarily estab-

lished at the corner of Lombard and South Howard Streets.

Twenty-five years ago Mr. W. S. Baker issued his painstaking list of the 'Engraved Portraits of Washington,' so well made that collectors have come to recognize it as a necessary guide. The 436 items described were considered a very goodly number for a Washington collection, but Mr. Charles Henry Hart has found 880 distinct plates of engraved portraits of Washington upon copper and steel, and notes 634 different "states," making a total of 1,514 individual prints. Even this may be but a beginning, as there is no certainty that every state has come to his notice, and the collector has open to him a field large enough to gratify his every taste and exhaust his purse. With such a list as Mr. Hart has compiled, it is almost impossible to go astray, and the sumptuous form in which it appears, with its many photogravure reproductions of rare prints, will make it one of the most desirable of acquisitions. It does not follow that we are any nearer to a *good* portrait of Washington, one that can be taken as a standard. More than one-half of the prints recorded are from Gilbert Stuart, and from so well-known a representation to the extraordinary fictitious portraits every possible gradation of expression may be found. Some of the serious attempts are true caricatures, and such plates as that made by Paul Revere should be classed as curiosities. The Grolier Club has done well to issue in so satisfactory a form a compilation made by so capable a hand.

'Chats on Writers and Books,' by the late John N. Crawford, is the title of a limited edition of 275 copies brought out in two volumes by the Charles H. Sergel Co., Chicago. An introduction is furnished by Horatio W. Seymour. Mr. Crawford was a lawyer and newspaper essayist, and these "chats" are contributions to the press, covering a wide reach of English literature, from Lady Mary Wortley Montagu to Crabb Robinson. The essays, which it had been the author's intention to collect in a permanent form, seem to have been well adapted to their original purpose.

Under the title 'From Broom to Heather,' Prof. James Taft Hatfield of the Northwestern University has brought together ten pleasant sketches of a summer spent by him and a company of young Americans in the old Hessian castle of Staufenberg. The party boarded with the family of the ducal steward, but were given entire freedom of the whole castle, and seem to have enjoyed the strangeness of their situation with a keenness and zest reminding one of the experiences of Mark Twain's Yankee at King Arthur's court. Apart from lively descriptions of feudal traditions and relics, the little book contains also vivid impressions of contemporary German life in village and town, and accounts of excursions through a large part of middle and northern Germany, including a sojourn in Berlin. The clever illustrations are a credit both to the skill of the photographer and to the publishers, Jennings & Pye of Cincinnati.

'The Home Mechanic,' by John Wright (Dutton), is a volume of something over 400 pages dealing with wood and metal-working in a thorough if somewhat discursive manner. From the making of a simple wooden box—begun on the seventeenth page and finally completed on the fifty-third—the home mechanic is instructed in

the niceties of cabinet work, taught the use of the lathe in turning both wood and metal, and given full working directions for the construction of a small steam-engine. Glazing, papering, whitewashing, soldering, electric wiring, and general household repairs are also treated; and the range should satisfy the most ambitious amateur. The directions are full and exact, and a proper emphasis is put on the selection and the care of tools, a number of which the amateur is taught to make for himself. The English authorship of the book reveals itself in some of the terms employed, which, like "Joinery," "sprigbit," etc., have an unfamiliar sound to an American; in the little discourse on nails (p. 49), where the illustration shows unusual forms and names (the "French" nail with its "untidy" head); and in many other little ways. The author is evidently a man of wide mechanical experience, skill, and accurate knowledge in most of the matters with which he deals; but when he touches on electrical phenomena he is at once out of his depth. Some of the statements which betray him are distinctly funny. "Mrs. Galvani discovered galvanism by skinning frogs' legs, which she was preparing to cook for her husband's dinner in Paris." "Electricity can be kept in a bottle or other suitable receptacle in its separated condition"; and "can be compressed or expanded in much the same way as air or steam." The subject "is composed of a jargon of very 'scientific' terms; in fact, abbreviations of the names of people, spelt either backwards or forwards." It "is an interesting study when reduced to intelligible English, and freed from the jargon which so closely resembles that of a quack doctor, but the subject is much too long to be given in a book such as this. The amateur . . . should remember that the great discoveries are made by chance, and that with a little luck he can find some new property which he may call a 'Jack' or a 'Tom.' . . . Very little is yet known about electricity, but in the course of time its properties will probably be discovered. . . . In the present state of knowledge, electricity is a very dangerous toy to play with if used in large quantities; therefore the amateur must be careful."

From E. P. Dutton we have a handsome volume, printed in England, on 'Liquid Fuel and its Combustion,' by William H. Booth. The subject is one in which there is now a wide and general interest, and this work, which deals fully and authoritatively with the matters concerned, will be welcomed. The author gives an account of what has been done in the way of utilizing liquid fuels since the first introduction of the practice some twenty-five years ago; and discusses the development of practice and theory, with descriptions of various systems and the apparatus employed. The economies of liquid fuels are carefully considered, and chapters are included on boiler feed water and its purification, the storage and distribution of fuel oils, analysis of flue gases, and compressed air and air compressors. The work is well illustrated, and an appendix, which fills about one-third of the 400 pages, contains much valuable information in regard to official tests, the rules and requirements of fire underwriters, etc., and many useful tables.

A thin volume of 'Tables for Chemical Calculations,' by Professor Wells of the

Sheffield Scientific School (Holt), contains a five-place table of logarithms and logarithmic factors of all the data which are given. The book commends itself by some features which are novel in laboratory aid of this character. The one fault we have to find with it is a structural one. The first twenty-four pages are cut to facilitate reference to the logarithmic tables, with the result that one turns to the data on these first pages with considerable trouble and vexation.

'Physical Chemistry in the Service of the Sciences,' by Jacobus H. van't Hoff, English version by Alexander Smith (University of Chicago Press), is a small book with a striking portrait of Van't Hoff, of whose genius it is hardly worthy. We read in Mr. Smith's preface that "the lectures were delivered in English," yet the author speaks of the "version here presented" and of "diese englische Ausgabe"; so that we infer that the English of the original needed correction. It is, at least, interesting to see these matters dealt with by this important chemist and physicist.

The Société de Géographie of Paris has just issued, under the legacy of Renoult des Orgeries, the first number of the 'Documents Scientifiques de la Mission Saharienne,' by F. Foureau, chief of the expedition (Paris: Masson). The astronomical and meteorological observations here presented will be followed by reports on topography, geology, biology, ethnology and archaeology. One must regret that the accounts of the wind and thunder storms, of which many were encountered, are so largely subjective as to give no clear idea of the entire disturbance, in which the observer could, of course, actually feel only a very subordinate part. It may be noted that the legacy of M. des Orgeries is to be applied to the aid of expeditions that are planned to bring the interior of Africa peacefully under the influence of France, and to make a homogeneous whole of her actual possession in Algeria, Senegal, and the Congo territory.

The exigencies of the German alphabet bring together, in volume five of the new edition of 'Meyers Konversations-Lexikon'—*Differenzgeschäfte-Erde*—(Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), wireless telegraphy, the three-plate color process, iron, railroads, precious stones, and electricity in manifold phases even to electrotherapy. These are all illustrated, the color printing in a very interesting way. So are the articles on eggs and evolution; the latter naturally overlapping the plates of embryology. There are excellent maps of Dresden, Düsseldorf, Edinburgh, Elberfeld-Barmen, Elsass-Lothringen, England and Wales; and a chart of earthquakes and volcanos. Encyclopædias are fitly treated historically. Dreyfus and Dumont rest amicably side by side in print. Frederick Douglass gets a quarter of a page, and a German edition of his autobiography, published in Hamburg in 1860, is cited; but the sketch is not too correct. There is a grave omission of President C. W. Eliot from notable Americans. As an example of what one may find, or expect to find, in this work, we may mention as a dictionary rubric Voltaire's "Écrasez l'infâme"—a cry much desiderated in this country for more than one evil element in our body politic.

Prof. Julius Geibel of Leland Stanford

University contributes to the serial publication "Der Kampf um das Deutschtum" (Munich: J. F. Lehmann) the latest number, dealing with the German element in the United States. The author gives a readable and interesting sketch of the history of German immigration in this country; of the leading characters in this history from Pastorius to Francis Lieber and Karl Heinzen; and of the present condition, social and intellectual, of the German-American population. His expositions display a strongly pronounced personality with very decided sympathies and antipathies, so that the reader sometimes finds it difficult to maintain his own equilibrium of mind in perusing these pages. That a patriot like Carl Schurz should be characterized as "ein Mann, der für die Sache des klug von ihm benutzten Deutschstums nie etwas übrig hatte, als schadlose Redensarten," seems to be carrying partisan bias altogether too far. There is, however, a good deal of sound common sense in this book, and the author's insistence on the importance of the preservation of the German language in the interest of American society at large is entirely just.

The principal contents of Petermann's *Mitteilungen*, number one, are an account of the geology of Canada by Prof. H. Haas, an extended notice of the new edition of Stieler's 'Handatlas,' and Dr. K. Vogelsang's narrative of his expedition in central China to investigate the mineral resources of the Ta-pa-shan mountain range. He was led to form an unfavorable opinion as to their extent and richness, the coal being barely sufficient to supply the local demand. Dr. Andersson gives a sketch of the Swedish Antarctic expedition, with a summary of its scientific results.

The modern doctrine that mountain peaks and ridges usually owe their form to the erosion of valleys in broadly uplifted masses of the earth's crust, seldom finds better illustration than in those parts of the Cascade range that are described in recent essays by G. O. Smith and B. Willis (Professional Paper No. 19, U. S. Geological Survey). The mountains are shown to be an uplifted and maturely dissected portion of a broad lowland of erosion which formerly occupied a large area in this region, and of which the less uplifted and therefore less dissected portions are seen in the great lava plains of the Columbia River. The mountains are mountains not by reason of violent and disorderly uplift, as used to be taught, and as still may be believed in many quarters, but by reason of gradual and orderly stream and river work. They give us a good example of the veritable tortoise of uniformitarian erosion not only outstripping but even driving from the field the fabulous hare of catastrophic mountain upheaval. An appropriate corollary to this demonstration is found in the cañon of the Yakima, followed by the Northern Pacific Railroad, where the river has held its course and cut a gorge across several uplifts of the land that must have diverted the river to some other path had they been of rapid origin. Lake Chelan, an unusually deep basin on the eastern side of the Cascades, is ascribed to glacial erosion; but the omission of all mention in this connection of Gannett's noteworthy article on the lake (*National Geographic Magazine*, 1898) is a blemish on an otherwise edifying report.

A recent report from the University of Halle mentions the interesting fact that this institution was the first in Germany to give the medical degree to a woman, the present year being the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of that event. It was in 1754 that the University created a daughter of Dr. Leporin of Halle a "Doctor Medicine." Her scientific studies had been carried on under the direction of her father, but in the University halls she defended a set of theses that secured her these academic honors. She is no doubt the pioneer of the modern university movement among the women of Germany, having as early as 1742 published a work entitled 'Gründliche Untersuchung der Ursachen, die das weibliche Geschlecht vom Studieren abhalten, darin deren Unerheblichkeit gezeigt wird, und, wie möglich, nötig und nützlich sei, dass dieses Geschlecht der Gelahrheit sich befleisse.' This first woman doctor of Germany died in 1762. We remark, by the way, that the University of Königsberg, in which the reaction against women students that set in about two years ago in the Prussian universities went so far that the medical faculty practically excluded women entirely, has, in a measure, relented. The medical department now again admits women to anatomical work, but not with the men.

In order to determine the average weight of the human brain, Professor Marchand of the Pathological Institute of the University of Marburg has, during the past seven years, examined 1,234 specimens. It appears that in the case of men between fifteen and fifty the average weight of the brain is 1,400 grammes; in the case of women 1,300 grammes. Only 30 per cent. of the males showed a weight higher than 1,450, and 20 per cent. less than 1,300 grammes. In the case of women, 25 per cent. had brains weighing less than 1,200 grammes, but 55 per cent. had brains weighing from 1,200 to 1,350. The difference in weight is not conditioned by the difference in bodily size, for men and women of the same size and weight show this difference as well as others. Professor Marchand asserts that the weight of the brain at birth is doubled in the first three-quarters of a year, and is trebled before the completion of the third year, after which period the rate of increase is much less. In the case of men, full development is reached at the age of eighteen or twenty; in the case of women, at sixteen or eighteen years. In childhood the ratio of the development of the brain and of the body is the same in males and females, independent of age, until the body has attained a length of 70 centimetres.

Beirut is the seat of the largest American institution of learning outside the United States, the Syrian Protestant College. Our consul reports that there are now 45 professors and instructors, 28 of whom are native Americans and graduates of American colleges, and 667 students. It has five departments, medicine, pharmacy, commerce, arts, and archaeology. Last fall it trebled the size of its chemical laboratory and opened a "model pharmacy" in it. There are fourteen commodious buildings and a campus of about fifty acres. The English language is the principal medium of instruction.

A very comprehensive folding map of the theatre of war in the East has just been issued by the Bibliographisches Institut of

Leipzig (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The main chart sweeps from Swatow and Formosa on the south to the middle of Saghalin, on a scale of 1:5,000,000. Side maps show Korea and the Yellow Sea environs (embracing Pekin), all enlarged to 1:3,000,000; the Liao-Tung Peninsula, with Port Arthur and Dalny, 1:850,000; Port Arthur itself, 1:22,000; the Tokio-Yokohama littoral, 1:200,000, and Yokohama 1:75,000. In this net all the operations by land and sea will surely be caught. The delineation is clear and elegant, and the only drawback to American use is the German transliteration; but, so far as China at least is concerned, where was a standard orthography ever attained, even in English? The author of this map is P. Krauss.

Equally deserving of mention and coming to us from the same New York house are two folding sheets of which the larger in form is A. Scobel's "Politische Karte von Japan, Korea, China und der Mandschurie" (Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing). It contains seven maps: of the world for trade routes to China, of Asia for population, of Eastern Asia from Japan to Lake Baikal, Tibet, Burma and Tonkin, and the Chinese coast from Hong Kong to the northern extremity of Korea, with the environs of Canton and Hong Kong, Pekin and Kiao-Chau enlarged. The lettering is remarkably clear even when at its finest. The smaller form (but slightly larger sheet) is A. Herrich's "Ost-Asien" (Glogau: Carl Flemming), also bearing seven maps paralleling some of Scobel's, but with Tokio and Seul added, the Gulf of Pichili for Port Arthur, and the Siberian railroad in connection with the European system. The continental map is mostly of the coast, and is on a liberal scale. Japan is shown in its entirety. While the execution is hardly abreast of that of the maps previously mentioned, the appearance is fairly open and legible.

Mr. William I. Fletcher's Summer School of Library Economy will open at Amherst, Mass., for the fourteenth season, on July 5, and close on August 12. Classes will be formed in French and German, with possible French and German boarding tables.

In his capacity as president of the Massachusetts Historical Society, Mr. Charles Francis Adams last October commented destructively on the late Abram S. Hewitt's personal reminiscences concerning Queen Victoria's intervention in favor of the North during our civil war. It was a question of dates, place, and persons present, and not directly of the Queen's attitude of mind. In January Mr. Adams returned to the subject in a paper now partly reproduced in the Society's Proceedings (II, December, 1903—January, 1904). This is a compact little study of the mood and trend of the Palmerston-Russell-Gladstone Ministry up to the decisive point where its movement, looking to a European intervention in favor of a settlement of the American conflict, was suddenly blocked after the calling of a Cabinet meeting to that end. Mr. Adams gives abundant documentary grounds for believing that the veto proceeded from the Queen, probably while at Gotha, in the autumn of 1862, and through Lord Granville, then in attendance upon her; and not so much (if at all) from her own sympathy with the North or with the American republic as from her pious sense of being the depositary of the wishes of the late Prince

Consort. Mr. Adams opines that "at the very most critical period of our foreign relations during the civil war—a period when it was simply touch-and-go with the Union—the whole course of events may not impossibly have turned on the individual attitude of the widow of Prince Albert." He suspects that the Granville papers, if examined, might solve the mystery of Palmerston's checkmate.

In the series of monographs on "Historic Highways" which Mr. Archer Butler Hulbert is writing for Arthur H. Clark Co., Cleveland, the seventh volume, entitled "Portage Paths: The Keys of the Continent," describes geographically and historically these important roads—originally Indian carries, now the lines of important railways and canals, and often the main streets of large towns. Volume nine, "Waterways of Westward Expansion," is devoted to early navigation on the Ohio and other Western rivers; and volume ten, "The Cumberland Road," gives an account of our first national pike, built by Congress to open the West, which "carried thousands of population and millions of wealth into the West, and, more than any other material structure in the land, served to harmonize and strengthen, if not to save, the Union." In each of these volumes an important story is interestingly told. Publication of the eighth volume, "Military Roads of the Mississippi Basin," has been delayed to permit of more thorough investigation. It had been well if other volumes in the series had received the same consideration, for the successive volumes continue to demonstrate the excellence of the author's plan and the negligence of its execution. A fine opportunity has been wasted by an astonishing indifference to that accuracy of statement on which all valuable writing of history must rest.

While space fails us to enumerate even the more startling misstatements, we suggest to the investigator that the errata may be usefully classified as follows: (a) Inconsistent misinformation: e. g., the first steamer on the Ohio was built at Pittsburgh in 1811 (vol. ix., pp. 101, 137). It was built at Brownsville in 1811 (ix., p. 140). A regular line of steamer packets ran from Pittsburgh to Cincinnati in 1796 (I., p. 31). (b) Intermittent misinformation, as when Fort Frederic is placed alternately at Ticonderoga and at Crown Point. (c) Insufficient misinformation, as exemplified in saying that the names of Rome and Rochester, N. Y., were taken from the Classical Dictionary. (d) Ingenuous misinformation, wherein—the converse of (c)—an inexact statement receives verisimilitude by being adorned with plausible detail. Thus, after ignoring the Hudson-Wood Creek Portage and giving disproportionate importance to the portage from the Hudson to Lake George, the author adds, "The Hudson-Lake George portage is quite accurately drawn on Col. Römer's map of 1700." Römer draws a portage, and draws it accurately, but it is the portage to Wood Creek. His map indicates no route to Lake George. Mr. Hulbert takes opportunity "to offer a plea for the wide study of historic sites and for placing there monuments of some kind for the purposes of identification before it be all too late." In this plea we heartily join, with the added prayer that writers of serious history will refrain from setting up so many monuments in wrong places, and

from displaying so many misguiding signboards along the Highways which they invite us to tread.

—Many interesting and little-known facts about Iceland are told in a small pamphlet of 80 pages entitled "Mimir: Icelandic Institutions and Addresses," printed in Copenhagen, and dedicated to the third Italian bibliographical conference in Florence. With a population of 80,000 inhabitants the island supports 41 periodicals, while 10 Icelandic periodicals are published in Selkirk and Winnipeg, Manitoba, for a constituency of 25,000 Icelanders! This colony has also several schools, churches, and other institutions. Iceland itself has not less than nine learned societies, one college, three professional schools, several high schools and agricultural schools, three museums, eight libraries, and its own national archives. There are three public funds for the encouragement of research and education, with a total endowment of approximately \$40,000, and the annual Government appropriation for educational and scientific purposes amounts to upwards of \$100,000 out of a budget of \$450,000. The College of Iceland dates from the twelfth century, and the Althing is the oldest representative body in the world. The national library received some years ago from a donor who wished to be anonymous (and we will only say that he was an American) a remarkable collection of literature on the noble game of chess, of which the islanders are great devotees. The object of the present publication is (1) "to facilitate research, in the territory which it attempts to cover"; (2) "to inform the people of Iceland of the interest taken in their early literature and history throughout the world"; (3) "to bring the foreign student of Old-Northern letters . . . into nearer relations with the only region in which . . . the sagas are still household reading"; (4) "to promote the proper development, already happily begun, of that little nationality, a fragment of the old Teutonic world, which has kept itself alive, against innumerable obstacles, on the border of the Arctic seas."

—The natural wonders of Iceland are enthusiastically described, and the island commended as an ideal summer sanatorium, not at all difficult of access. "How to get to Iceland" is shown, as well as how to obtain Icelandic books for foreign libraries and to send books to Iceland. "The large public libraries will most gladly receive any books whatever, since their means for purchases are very restricted, and the demands of their readers insatiable; but, for the smaller book-collections scattered over the land, useful or entertaining (rather than purely learned) works will be especially acceptable—for not only is the fondness for reading everywhere great, but the opportunity for it, in the long evenings of winter, is most ample." In this connection it should be noted that, "next to Icelandic, Danish, and Swedish, the tongue most generally known throughout the island is English." The pamphlet gives the addresses of some eighty Icelandic scholars and more than two hundred foreign writers on Icelandic subjects, with an additional fifty in a supplement; their most important writings are mentioned, and the editors intend to make this bibliographical feature more prominent in a new issue which may be expected to come out some time this year. "To attain

the desired completeness," the editors state in the preface, "additions and corrections, changes of address and other information will be gratefully received and gladly used if addressed before June 1, 1904, to Mimir, Lungo il Mugnone 11, Florence, Italy." A request addressed as indicated will presumably secure to the interested a copy of the pamphlet itself.

The art competitions encouraged annually at the New Year's season by the metropolitan newspapers of Tokio, Osaka, and Kloto, show little tendency to depart from fixed ideals and traditions. There is, indeed, among the score or so before us, one picture possessing some artistic merit, by Eisaku-Wada of Paris, a Japanese student who sends a well-produced semi-nude figure of Echo. In the French impressionist style, a young woman unclothed above the waist, stands against a background of green trunk trees in the forest gloaming. It is probable that such a picture cannot be acceptable to the Japanese, who, except in the case of a narrow circle of admirers, thus far have shown very little tendency to enjoy or appreciate the nude in art. Among the rich color pieces are those of a damsel holding a mirror, and another of a little girl within the house playing with her silk-wound ball in front of the New Year's decorations. Another, with appropriate poetry, shows in delightfully harmonious coloring a nineteenth-century lady of the court, and is a feast to the eye. One striking color print represents with pleasing accuracy that mediaeval literary lady, Murasaki, whose famous novel of the eleventh century is still to-day not only a classic, but the acknowledged standard of the language—whether for Bible translation or the higher ranges of pure Japanese style. Most interesting to the lover of folk-lore is the daughter of the dragon king of the world under the sea, who moves through the sparkling waves to her home among the coral groves, with all her towers and pagodas flaunting banners of nacre and flags of pearl. If any one doubts that the art of Japan is living, and has been as yet but slightly influenced by the Occident, a single glance at these twenty specimens of recent art work thus patronized and stimulated by the newspapers would convince him to the contrary.

MRS. PAGET TOYNBEE'S EDITION OF WALPOLE'S LETTERS.

The Letters of Horace Walpole, Fourth Earl of Orford. Chronologically arranged, and edited with notes and indices, by Mrs. Paget Toynbee. In sixteen volumes, with portraits and facsimiles. Vols. I. to IV. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde.

It is difficult to add anything to what has been often and well said of Horace Walpole. His character, personal and literary, is rare and exceptional, but not hard to understand or to depict. It is, as observed by Macaulay, whose good sense here as elsewhere hits the mark which his vehemence of language seems to overshoot, the character of one to whom affectation is so natural that it ceases to be affectation. "The art itself is nature." The uniqueness of his position as a man of letters may be summed up in the observation that he is one of the few who have achieved real dis-

tinction by perfection in little things. What in the hands of another man of equal gifts might have been great, is with him small; what such a man might have disdained as small, he has made great. He is one of perhaps the only three persons who have obtained great celebrity in the world of letters by familiar correspondence alone—the younger Pliny, Madame de Sévigné, and himself. Other famous letter-writers, from Cicero to Edward FitzGerald, might possibly have gained immortality by letter-writing alone, but have so much wider and more substantial claims to recognition that their familiar correspondence merely counts, as Wordsworth so prettily says of Dante's sonnets, as a myrtle leaf in the chaplet of bay. Pliny and Madame de Sévigné had probably no great capacity for other kinds of composition, but Walpole, as historian, critic, and romancer, possessed not only talent, but originality. The apparently idle and frivolous hunter of curiosities was really a pioneer. His 'Castle of Otranto,' the first blossom of the romantic revival in Europe, actually anticipated by a few months the publication of the Percy Ballads, from which that revival is most commonly and perhaps most accurately dated. His 'Historic Doubts' respecting Richard the Third, though his particular thesis may be unsustainable, set a wholesome example of independence in historical research. Yet these works, though noteworthy as chronological mementos, would in no other respect have immortalized the author.

The accepted explanation of this phenomenon is no doubt the correct one. Walpole was not only an author, but a fine gentleman, and wrote in mortal dread of compromising his social reputation. He went further than Eugène Sue, who is said to have invariably written in a pair of lemon-colored kid gloves, presented to him by a lacquey upon a golden salver. Walpole's kid enveloped the whole man. Hence his relations with Fame, in so far as concerned what might have been the serious part of his work as an author, resemble Congreve's relations with Voltaire. Congreve, when visited by the latter, disclaimed all interest in his dramatic works, and affected to desire to be regarded solely as a fine gentleman. Voltaire told him that if he had considered him merely in this light, he would not have come to see him. If Fame has visited any of Walpole's works besides his letters, it is the delightful and truly valuable Memoirs of the Reigns of George the Second and George the Third, which approach most nearly to the character of letters, and might almost pass for letters addressed to himself by himself, and fused into a continuous narrative by the excision of the formal headings and conclusions.

If Walpole comparatively failed as a serious author through posing as an amateur and dilettante, he succeeded all the better in a style of composition from which amateurism and dilettantism were excluded by a genuine wish to excel. The labor requisite to make him a valuable historian or a sound critic of art was repugnant to his nature, but he did not mind spending any amount of time in seasoning a paragraph or polishing a period. He combined the characteristics of the preachers and the actors of his age, who, said Garrick, respectively delivered discourses on momentous themes as though they were matters of no conse- quence, and declaimed fictions as though they were insisting on solemn truths. There is scarcely one of Walpole's letters, on however trifling a subject, which does not bear the trace of careful composition. He showed that he looked to posterity as well as to his correspondents by keeping copies of his letters, and, when he could recover the originals, destroying or revising these with no sparing hand. Most of his letters to Mme. du Deffand, reclaimed by him, have disappeared, probably because he found their French incorrect; the letters to Sir Horace Mann survive only in expurgated copies. "His worst he kept, his best he gave," is as true of him as of the poet, and it is but justice to gauge his worth by his epistles. About the merit of these there have been no two opinions. They entirely fulfil the two chief conditions we are entitled to exact from the familiar letter-writer, that he should paint the sphere in which he moves, and that, in so doing, he should paint himself. This Walpole effects with perfect success, and has the advantage over every eminent competitor except Cicero and Sévigné that his sphere is not a coterie, but a large, cultivated, animated, and brilliant if frivolous society.

The name which has hitherto been chiefly connected with Walpole's in an editorial capacity is that of Peter Cunningham. Cunningham is by no means immaculate as a man of letters—as a would-be illustrator of Shakspere, indeed, there are serious stains upon his character; but as an editor of Walpole he could not go far wrong within the limits which he prescribed to himself. He collected such letters as were already in type or could be procured without much difficulty, printed them handsomely on good paper, supplied a modicum of useful annotation, and produced nine volumes exceedingly becoming to the shelf, from which, it is just to add, they have up to our time been continually taken down. After forty-six years' reign Cunningham is dethroned by a lady, who beats him out of the field by sheer weight of metal. Whereas the last issue of Cunningham's edition has 2,654 letters, representing 95 correspondents, Mrs. Toynbee's edition will have 3,061, representing 150. It will be observed that the proportion of the new correspondents is much in excess of the proportion of new letters, and this is highly significant. Cunningham took what was already conspicuous, Mrs. Toynbee has hunted in nooks and corners. She has cared supremely for her author, and has aimed at erecting a monument to his memory; Cunningham merely thought of achieving, as creditably as might be without much labor, a pleasant and lucrative piece of literary work. Mrs. Toynbee's zeal, on the other hand, has guided her to autograph dealers, to auctioneers' catalogues, to back numbers of periodicals, and to the stores of collectors like the late Mr. Alfred Morrison. Most of these recoveries seem to belong to Walpole's latter days, for the number of letters in the four volumes of this edition already published not already in Cunningham's is not very considerable, and but few of these are now printed for the first time. Some, however, have hitherto appeared only in places where they could be accessible but to the few. Among these is the earliest letter of Walpole that has been preserved, one addressed at the age of fourteen to Charles Lyttelton, afterwards Bishop of Carlisle, and the ac-

complished scholar to whom the Society of Antiquaries is believed to be indebted for its unique collection of single-sheet royal proclamations. Few schoolboys of the present day could write so elegantly, or would write so formally. Some verses enclosed have not been preserved.

Mrs. Toynbee not only has added numerous letters to Cunningham's edition, but has ascertained remarkable facts concerning letters already in print. Cunningham's text has been shown to be frequently faulty in the case of letters first printed by him, even when he had access to the originals. He has also perpetuated many errors of his predecessors, including a very odd one by which Mrs. Piazzesi was converted into Bruce, the African traveller. His omissions are usually justifiable on the ground of propriety, and Mrs. Toynbee has felt herself necessitated to follow his example in the case of a large portion of the letters to Sir Horace Mann, which Cunningham republished, but apparently saw only in print. The originals of the letters to Mann are not in existence, having been destroyed by Walpole himself, to whom, in pursuance of an arrangement between the correspondents, they were periodically returned. This proves that Walpole, from an early period, contemplated publication and aspired to epistolary fame, and this appears still more evidently from his having caused numerous passages to be omitted from the transcript made by his direction, and then destroyed the originals. The proscribed passages were nevertheless copied separately by his faithless secretary; but, these copies having been eventually given up to and burned by Walpole's executor, the passages are lost to the world, if that can be said to be lost which in all probability is no loss. So defective, indeed, was Walpole's *index expurgatorius* that the first editors of the correspondence, instead of vouchsafing the smallest hint to the public, omitted a considerable portion of what Walpole had retained; and their twentieth-century successor, albeit possessed with more than an Athenian's eagerness to hear or tell some new thing, is constrained to approve and imitate their action. The same remark applies to the omissions made by Cunningham in the letters to George Montagu. Whether similar or equally valid reasons justify Lord Ilchester's refusal to allow Mrs. Toynbee to see the letters in his possession cannot at present be known. The Earl's character for urbanity and culture requires Walpole to be scandalous; readers, nevertheless, will scarcely refrain from wishing his lordship churlish, and the letters fit for publication.

In other cases, Mrs. Toynbee has been unable to confirm the judgment of her predecessors; she has, for example, restored numerous passages in Walpole's letters to the Misses Berry which were omitted not merely by Cunningham, but by Lady Theresa Lewis, who had herself made many additions to Cunningham's text. As these are among the last in chronological order, it is as yet impossible to say whether Mrs. Toynbee's additions are of much importance—probably not; but it is always worth while to preclude all suspicion of garbling. There seems to have been much of this in the case of the letters to Hannah More, and Mrs. Toynbee particularly regrets not having been able to inspect the originals of all of them,

since in those which she has examined passages have been cancelled and proper names erased, a disfigurement imperfectly compensated by the insertion of words and phrases by the elegant pen of Hannah More herself. Out of 177 letters to Marshal Conway, the originals of twenty-seven only are available for collation. Where can the others be? The letters to Madame du Deffand, seven excepted, are certainly irrecoverable. Out of the three thousand and odd letters promised by Mrs. Toynbee, the four volumes now published contain 720, down to November, 1760, the last being the celebrated account of the funeral of George II., with the description of the demeanor of "the burlesque Duke of Newcastle, running about the chapel to spy who was or was not there, spying with one hand and mopping his eyes with the other."

In the points of print, paper, and illustration, these volumes are in every way worthy of the Clarendon Press. The neat impression on India paper is especially to be commended, as it abolishes the difficulty of space, which might exclude the library edition from many dwellings, the sixteen imposing tomes being reduced to eight pocket volumes. Four illustrations are given with each volume, all so far portraits, except the welcome facsimile of Walpole's first letter. There will be eleven portraits of the author himself, three published for the first time. The first of these in date, the frontispiece to the first volume, prophetically represents "Master Horace Walpole" in the act of writing. The only criticism we can find to offer respects the annotation, which is excellent in quality, but might have been more ample. Walpole's own notes are preserved, except when mere repetitions; and Mrs. Toynbee "has added others whose usefulness, so far as they go, make us wish that they went further. Some ambiguous points are left unexplained, and the general reader would have been thankful for some information respecting many of the personages mentioned. It certainly would be inexpedient to swamp the text with commentary, but an accompanying volume of notes might be made almost as entertaining as the text itself.

MORE NOVELS.

Two Sides of the Face. By A. T. Quiller-Couch. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Deliverance. By Ellen Glasgow. Doubleday, Page & Co.

The Novels, Stories and Sketches of F. Hopkinson Smith. "Beacon Edition." Charles Scribner's Sons.

Mr. Quiller-Couch's story of a butler personating his absent master can make none but the unskillful laugh. In his ghost story the ghosts are as detached from any reason for existing as they are from the flesh. But of the eight in his book, these two are the only stories that are not characteristically good. The rest range over the latter half of the eighteenth century in England, illustrating the rough living, violent manners, and military compulsions of a period when rudeness ruled the Court, the camp, the grove. When Mr. Quiller-Couch's heroes go on secret service in the Peninsular campaigns, or when his Cornish men undertake to defend their hearths and homes from the sheriff, a good story may confidently be

expected—a rattling good story, we might say if there were not in his tone and topic something of more dignity than rattle; say rather, a well-controlled thunder. No better story of its kind is to be read than "Stephen of Steens," whose house was his castle, "not perhaps by law, but assuredly by right."

Says the heroine of Ellen Glasgow's novel, in speaking of the love of a certain wife for her unsatisfactory husband, "It was a great love, which is the next best thing to a great faith." Answers the hero: "It was more than that—it was a great deliverance." The book may be called the story of a man's deliverance from evil by the love of a woman—love great, compelling, conquering, and (if the mere reviewer may say so) stolid. When a woman finds that the man she loves has been engaged for five years in deliberately corrupting her brother in order to serve his own purposes of revenge, it would seem that his confession should turn her at least temporarily from him. Not in the least in the case of Maria Fletcher. Even at the moment of revelation, "her faint smile was still sketched about the corners of her mouth." Only later come "smothered sobs," and then words of incredible leniency: "Oh, how unhappy—how unhappy you have been!" Even the moral-suasion Mother, when Mary pushed baby into the street, held up her finger at Mary. Probably few things in a lover are so irresistible for a woman as to find him renouncing wrong-doing for her sake; but when that wrong is the prepuce ruin of her own brother, body and soul, forgiveness itself might well forget its errand for the moment. In truth, the whole story of Christopher Blake's revenge on the overseer who is supposed (never proved) to have cheated him out of his ancestral acres, is an over-painful one to weight the hero of a novel withal. Were he pirate or murderer, he would be easier to follow. His godlike brow and his brutal mouth are contradictions of which the resultant is a creature to be beloved by the author only; certainly not by the reader—least of all, one would think, by the heroine at first sight and ever after, through her own unhappy first marriage and without flinching in the face of the discovery that he has sent her young brother to the dogs. His final sacrifice in taking upon himself punishment for the crime of the boy whom he had rendered capable of committing it, is fine enough to justify the reader in a little relenting—an act of grace impossible to a heroine already hopelessly committed to her infatuation.

The passion of the Blake family for the land that Blakes had lived on for two hundred years, is an intense and ineradicable as that of Quiller-Couch's Stephen of Steens. The picture of the defrauded and exiled family is full of pathos, and would be even more moving if, through any of the lamentings or reminiscences or heroic adjustment to privations, we could discover that the passion for the past included any higher or deeper sentiment than the passion for old port, old mahogany, old brocade, old plain thinking, and old deep drinking. It would be pleasant to love as well as pity the blind old dame who, in her silk and lace, lives for years on the kindly lies of her family and fancies herself still in her old home, the citizen of a firmly established

Southern Confederacy. Her memories of past grandeur are punctuated with epigrams of the cynical sort, chiefly about marriage. Though she says that to be a gentleman "embraces all morality and a good deal of religion," in reality she places less stress on either than on social correctness in adventure, and good breeding in the use of the ash-tray. The cheerful, optimistic old soldier wreck who has learned to be happy in watching the sky and the dandelions, regrets least in his life "his youthful follies," and "likes best to recall" the fact that he was ready to ruin himself for a woman—"even though he didn't." Are these the ideals that chivalry stores up for old age? The pretty daughter whom all the others spare in the general drudgery of their bitter poverty, is the familiar Southern type in the familiar faded flowered-muslin style, within and without. The spinster sister who carries the family on her shoulders and imposes her saintliness on theirs as reprisal, is a piteous likeness of many a Southern daughter surviving her family's days of luxury; slaving endlessly for them, with a vast legacy of pride of the sort that handicaps rather than helps. The heroine, sprung from the despised overseer class, is the real aristocrat of the group, barring the anomaly of her attitude toward the hero. Among the poor whites are some delightfully humorous characters. Mrs. Spade's downright views of life, for all their caricature, seem to clear the air of Mrs. Blake's musky fine-ladyism: "The best rule to follow, accordin' to my way of thinkin'," says Mrs. Spade, "is to make up yo' mind right firm that no matter what evil falls upon a person, it ain't nearly so bad as the good Lord ought to have made it." "Virtue may not take the place of beaux," my po' ma used to say, "but it will ease her along mighty well without 'em."

Tobacco is a leading character in the story. We see the Virginians looking to it for their daily bread as for their daily work; we follow it as a crop and as a motive; we see Virginia methods of two hundred years ago still applied to the processes of the planting and the harvest; we see the human struggle surging round it as it always surges round the mainstay of material life, whatever that may be. Whatever glamour tobacco can borrow from sunrise and moonlight is here with all the dignity that labor's hard hand can bring. Not as poison, luxury, or comfort does it win a thought, but as life or death. Instinctively Millet's pictures come to the mind's eye as one follows the struggle of man with Nature. With its many interests, black, white, human, inanimate, ethical, social, psychologic, 'The Deliverance' offers richness and variety. The writing is almost wholly good, the reading often so, however one may protest against improbabilities, or however weary one may have become of decayed Southern gentility.

The tenth volume of the "Beacon Edition" of Mr. Hopkinson Smith's works closes the subscription edition as originally announced. But why may we not hope to welcome many more volumes so long as publishers and author shall live—each volume in its cheerful cloth dress, each with its colored illustrations from the writer or other competent sources, each with its beautiful paper and printing and with its water-marked lighthouse on every page, token of the author's reputation in

making beacons and stories well-built and shining? Of the lighter aspects of travel there is no more bright, cheery, open-eyed chronicler than Mr. Hopkinson Smith. A happy hospitality of mind toward mankind, a huge appetite for picturesque experiences, a painter's eye, a gypsy's joy of life, a robust, unorganized charity for the under dog, a humorist's sense of situation, a constructor's sense of climax are the palpable features of his equipment. His stories are conspicuously to the point; a small point, it may be, but polished and executive. Charming are his sketches of all lands of color, be they Mexico, Holland, or Italy.

When it comes to portraiture, like other portrait artists Mr. Smith excels in one direction. One who has taken out of life and put into literature Colonel Carter, Chad, Captain Joe, Major Slocomb, Mr. Moon, and the Man from Troy has generously atoned for the artificiality of many others of his men portraits and most of his women. Of these, 'Tom Grogan,' the woman stevedore, is the most widely celebrated, but even Tom reads like an episode expanded into a bursting Cardigan jacket. As the heroine of a short story, we can fancy her the very spirit of womanly hauling. What is above and beyond this is perilously near the "mitherless bairn" fashion of portraiture. So, too, the many gentle old Southern ladies in the gallery remain in mind as fluffy creations of lace, white locks, and pot-pourri, turned out after a conventional pattern and quite undifferentiated.

Between the short stories and the Novels we make an analogous comparison. The stories stand with the best of the men portraits, let us say; they are nature reflected and interpreted. The novels, on the other hand, have a touch of the process method—thus much episode, thus much purple and fine linen, thus much dinner-pall; a little love, a little more sentiment, a few tears, a due portion of laughter, three table-d'hôte meals a day with wine or beer, all disposed about the central real achievement—the historically valuable Southern home, the admirable lighthouse, the lovable pump, the captivating diving-bell, the fascinatingly personal engine. These be the true heroes of his novels—the cake to which the folk are icing, with an over-tendency to sugar. Captain Joe and Captain Bob may be excepted. They are as winning as enrockment blocks and boat derricks. And yet we like them even better when they figure in the short stories. In these, indeed, there is rarely a person, a phrase or a color that does not absolutely fit into the scheme, and one may be sure that all conduce to a final touch which proves to be an accolade.

BOOKS FOR MUSIC LOVERS.

Wagner's Parsifal. By Maurice Kufferath. Henry Holt & Co.

Theodore Leschetizky. By Comtesse Angèle Potocka. Century Co.

The Life of Hector Berlioz. Translated by Katharine F. Boult. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Founders of Music. By Hannah Smith. G. Schirmer.

The Ring of the Nibelung. By Alice Leighton Cleather and Basil Crump. G. Schirmer.

Women's Work in Music. By Arthur Elson. L. C. Page & Co.

The English translation of Professor Kufferath's admirable monograph on "Parsifal" appeared first about the time of the production of that opera as an oratorio under Anton Seidl's direction in Brooklyn, in 1890; it has been out of print for some time, and now reappears with an introduction by H. E. Krehbiel, and with all the mistakes of the first issue. Over and over again the word harmonies is printed harmonies, as it was in that edition; and, pray, what is the "trituration of motives" we read of on page 294 (where we also find modulation in place of modulations)? The new edition would no doubt have had a large sale had it appeared three months ago, when booksellers were at their wits' ends to supply the demand for books on Wagner's *Bühnenweihfestspiel*; but it will not be ignored now, for "Parsifal" will endure.

Of all the treatises on Wagner's last music-drama, this is by far the most elaborate and scholarly. In its 300 pages the opera and its subject are discussed from every imaginable point of view, and always readably as well as reliably. The sources of the play are discussed, and comparisons are made of the treatment of the Grail legend by other poets with Wagner's. But, of the nine chapters, the two which will interest the largest circle of readers are that on the first performance at Bayreuth, and another one, on the score, which analyzes the music with the aid of notation, to illustrate the leading motives. Professor Kufferath calls attention to the significant fact that the instrumentation of "Parsifal" alone occupied Wagner for nearly three years, and he dwells on the care the composer took to keep the whole work in the "simple tone of sanctity." He wished to suppress certain modulations and intervals that were not in this tone, and to avoid all pathetic harmony and sentimental melody. Saint-Saëns, we are told, felt inclined to criticize "Parsifal" in 1882; but in a moment of expansion he admitted to M. Stoullig that "one felt like a very insignificant sort of fellow when listening to such works."

The Countess Potocka is the sister-in-law of Leschetizky, the teacher of Paderewski, Essipoff, Fanny Bloomfield Zeisler, Schütt, and other eminent pianists of our time. Before he made a special vocation of teaching, he himself was a prominent concert pianist, and his adventures in divers European countries were varied and often romantic. They are related picturesquely by the Countess, who got her facts partly from his own mouth, partly from his diaries. Many eminent musicians figure in her pages, among them Liszt, Rubinstein, Thalberg, Donizetti, Meyerbeer (one of whose daughters was Leschetizky's pupil), Bülow, Lamperti, Paderewski, Goldmark, Chopin, his idol, he never had a chance to meet, which he regretted on musical rather than on patriotic grounds. In Leschetizky, we are told, "cosmopolitanism has smothered the love of country. In general he has little good to say of Poles, maintaining that they are underhanded and ungrateful." He has become a Hungarian subject, and he left the Catholic Church in order to marry Essipoff. As a teacher he is now in such demand, especially by American girls, that he needs four assistants to prepare them for him (*Vorbereiter*, they are called). It does not take him long to recognize talent. When

he first brought out Paderewski, a Viennese musician remarked that "the young man did not seem to promise much"; but his teacher retorted: "My dear sir, you will have to get used to hearing that young man's name." The Countess comments on Paderewski's wonderful gift of mind-reading and his childlike enjoyment of fun. Sometimes, we are told, he would "laugh so heartily that, through sheer exhaustion, he would sit down on the floor, and with no symptom of embarrassment at his undignified position." Some of the details given regarding Leschetizky's teaching are likely to frighten intending pupils. We read of him as throwing music at pupils; of "the often hasty retreat of the unfortunate pupil," "the thundering rage of the old man." However, "he is quickly soothed, and often expiates his harshness by a sleepless night of remorse."

The Dutton edition of the 'Life of Berlioz' is one of the Temple Autobiographies. It is the story of his career as told by himself in his letters and memoirs. The translator, Katharine F. Boult, recognizing the unreliable character of Berlioz's Memoirs as a character-study, has mingled with them the contents of his best letters, and the result is a most entertaining book, with hardly a dull page. Humor is one of the principal traits of Berlioz's writings; yet, as the translator points out in an introductory chapter, "he never discovers—as a man with a true sense of humor would have done—that in sharpening his rapier at Wagner and the Music of the Future, he is meting out to a struggling composer precisely the same measure that the Parisians had meted out to himself." In June, 1855, he writes gleefully from London that Wagner "is buried beneath the vituperations of the whole British press. He remains calm, for he says that *in fifty years he will be master of the musical world.*" A letter to Wagner, written three months later, he ends with the words: "Write me down an ass until further orders." In 1861 he is madly delighted with the fiasco of "Tannhäuser" in Paris. "Coming out, Wagner was vituperated as a scoundrel, an idiot, an impudent wretch. . . . The press is unanimous in damning the opera."

Hannah Smith's little book on 'Founders of Music' is a series of "life-sketches for young readers," the composers selected being Palestrina, Bach, Handel, Gluck, Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, Weber, Schubert, Mendelssohn, Schumann, Chopin, Liszt, Wagner. Familiar facts are presented in simple language, and there are a baker's dozen of portraits.

'The Ring of the Nibelung' is one of the numerous analyses of Wagner's tetralogy. The stories of the four operas are told in detail, and some of the leading motives are given in musical type.

Arthur Elson's book makes out as good a case as any one could for women in connection with music; yet it is a weak case at best, except on the side of interpretation. The question, "Where is there a single piece of first-rate music written by a woman?" still remains unanswered. Mr. Elson reviews his field in a comprehensive manner. After two chapters on ancient and mediæval times, he treats of the wives of composers. Clara and Robert Schumann get a chapter by themselves; then follow one on other musical romances, and half-

a-dozen more on the musical women of England, Germany, France, America, and other countries. Most of the names given are as unimportant as they are unfamiliar. Here, for instance, is Mr. Elson's partial list of women who have written orchestral works: "Augusta Holmes, Chaminade, Luisa Lebeau, Emile Mayer, Mme. Farrenc, Comtesse de Grandval, Elfrida Andree, Edith Chamberlayne, Mrs. Meadow-White, Aline Hundt, Oliveria Prescott, and in our own country Mrs. Beach and Miss Lang." A list of the men who have written orchestral works of the same degree of merit as these women would fill up most of the pages of Mr. Elson's book.

The Tariff Problem. By W. J. Ashley. London: P. S. King & Son. 1903.

The ideal that Mr. Chamberlain and those who follow him have placed before themselves is simply domination. The sight of "all the kingdoms of the world, and the glory of them" is too great a temptation to be resisted. So the author of this book is "loath to see the English people surrender their share in guiding the destinies of the world." He cannot bear to think of England's sinking into the position of Switzerland or Holland. She must dominate; she must be one of the three coming "world-empires." The only possible way to secure this position is by combination with her colonies. The only way to bring this about is to tax the trade with other countries, and exempt colonial trade. Of course, the man or the nation that proposes to dominate or to domineer will arouse jealousy and hatred. Most people are willing to dominate, but they dislike very much to have other people dominate over them. It is necessary therefore for those who set dominion as their ideal to prepare for defence. If they wish for supremacy, they must fight for it. They must have great armies and great navies, and, Professor Ashley contends, protective tariffs. Every nation but the English has a protective tariff. The time has come for her to resort to this weapon.

The case against free trade is very skilfully stated. To the wayfaring man, the arguments against free trade are, and always have been, convincing. If other countries tax goods sent to them from England, while England does not tax the goods sent to her by other countries, it seems clear that England is at a disadvantage. No doubt it is incorrect to assume, as some of the advocates of free trade have assumed, that the consumer of taxed goods pays the whole of the tax. The producer or seller of the goods must almost always pay some part of it. To a certain extent, therefore, England suffers from the tariffs of her customers. But do not her customers suffer more? That they do, free traders have frequently demonstrated, and Professor Ashley's case is weakened by his failure to attempt any reply to their demonstrations.

Much of his book is devoted to the task of proving that the exports of England are diminishing, and that such increase as they show is of a disastrous character. England's soil is robbed by the export of potter's clay, and her people are degraded by manufacturing for export clothing, furniture, oil-cloth, soap, and jam. The increasing export of coal is described as a most alarming

phenomenon. True, coal is consumed by English manufacturers; but this is a slow process. "The irony of the situation is rendered, if possible, more acute by the consideration that the smokeless steam coal so precious for naval purposes, which forms a large part of the coal export, is among the most important of munitions of war." It would seem to follow that the countries which supply England with food, with cotton, and with iron are rendering her a great service, and are on the road to their own ruin. There are actually Americans who remove fertilizers from the soil of their own country and sell them to enrich that of England. Our exports of petroleum are a far more monumental instance of national folly than the English exports of coal.

If Professor Ashley is alarmed by the exportation of coal, he is overcome with terror at the discovery of a conspiracy among the manufacturers of the United States and those of Germany to "dump" their products on the English market. Mr. Schwab and Mr. Gates are quoted as jauntily testifying that they sell their wares cheaper to Englishmen than to Americans. For more than a century, as our own protectionists have repeatedly warned us, Englishmen have been doing the same by us in spite of our tariffs; whence it might be inferred that customs duties were not a cure for this disease. Strangely enough, Professor Ashley does not mention the most frightful instance of all—that of the bounties paid by the Continental nations on the export of sugar. In consequence of this system, the English people have for many years been getting their sugar at half price, the difference being made up out of the taxes contributed by the people of France and Germany. Under these circumstances the industry of refining sugar has not flourished in England; to repeat Professor Sumner's classical epigram—"The Germans have the industry, and the English have the sugar."

This, according to our author, is a short-sighted policy—for the English. There may be some ephemeral gain in getting goods cheap. If Americans are willing to supply iron to Englishmen for less than cost, English manufacturers of ironware may receive a "temporary fillip." "But while the gain will be of doubtful duration, the loss by the destruction of the material-supplying industry will be profound, and will be widely demoralizing." This line of argument may sound plausible in England; we have heard it too many thousand times in this country to listen to it again with patience. Even to Englishmen the possible establishment of sugar refineries may not seem to justify increasing the cost of sugar to every family in England, though the objectionable industry of making jam for export be extinguished. It is not clear what industries Professor Ashley wishes to protect and what to destroy. His chief concern is that the trade unions should be favored; but if he prohibits the exportation of coal, the miners' unions would suffer. If he taxes the importation of cotton or of iron, similar results would follow. To propitiate Canada, he must tax the bread and meat of English workmen. He pleads that a small tax would not increase the price of bread; it would be paid by the foreign producer. But if the grain dealers of the United States should "dump" their surplus grain on the English market at the same price as before the tax was imposed,

the advantage to the Canadians is not apparent.

When he gets away from the uncomfortable subject of taxing bread, he becomes bolder. No half-way measures will be efficacious. "Duties of 50 or 75 per cent. *ad valorem* may be needed—or even prohibition." These duties may not be permanent; "if permanence can be avoided, it will be very desirable." But the matter cannot be left in the hands of Parliament. The Executive must be authorized "to impose the duties that may be required from time to time as the circumstances arise." We can imagine no more distressing situation than that of the English merchant or manufacturer under such uncertainty as this arrangement would cause. To be sure, the Executive is to be advised by a corps of professors of economics, after the fashion of the Germans, who shall constantly survey "every considerable branch of British trade and commerce—its condition industrially, technically, commercially," and furnish a parallel series of reviews of the industries of the other chief countries of the world. It does not seem worth while to consider this proposition seriously; practical men have not yet forgotten the dismal spectacle of a great body of English professors of economics chasing the *ignis fatuus* of bimetallism.

When it comes to explaining the part of the colonies under the new system, Professor Ashley treads very softly. As we have seen, he has to maintain that the English workman is not to pay more for his food, and yet to convince the colonists that they are somehow going to get more pay for supplying it. He must satisfy the woollen manufacturers of England that they are not to pay higher prices for their materials, and the Australians that they will sell these materials at higher prices. Even more delicate is the task of explaining to the colonists that they are expected to refrain from competing with English manufacturers. As these colonists are in the main bigoted protectionists, it will probably take some time to persuade them that "the main interest of the new countries now lies in the distribution of the population over the land and the maintenance of its physique by rural life." In this way the colonies will "avoid the evils of over-hasty industrialism." Since the whole scheme of imperial protectionism collapses unless the colonies take this view of their interests—which they will apparently not do before the Greek Kalends—the proposal to alter the policy of England seems premature. Recipes for hare soup are useless if the hare has not been caught; and if England cannot be a world empire until her colonies give up their protective duties, her citizens may well consider whether some other ideal may not be preferable to that of domination. Their great land—to quote William Watson's lines to Mr. Bryce—

"Shall yet remember—she forgets to-day—
How the munificent hands of Life are full
Of gifts more covetable an hundred-fold
Than man's dominion o'er reluctant man."

The Reminiscences of an Astronomer. By Simon Newcomb. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1903. 8vo, pp. 426.

Nobody will take up Professor Newcomb's blithe 'Reminiscences' in the expectation of

social or political genre-pictures or revelations. The theatre of experience of a devoted researcher into an exact science is necessarily extremely narrow. It is doubtful whether he will have known even the chiefs in his own line so intimately as some less engrossed man or woman may have done. A student of science may find interesting information in the volume, as well as a cheery example when his task is discouraging, and a cheering voice when a great effort is to be made. The general reader will, for the most part, go to the book to learn something of that curious human variety, the great savant. Newcomb is quite the most distinguished man of science in this country to-day, as well as one of the most eminent in the whole world. His name will remain upon the page of scientific history, and eventually take its place high in the second rank, distinctly above Leverrier's or even Hansen's, because of the breadth of his work. He is one of the eight *associés étrangers* of the Paris Academy of Sciences. This is universally acknowledged to be the greatest public honor that can be conferred upon a non-French man of science. Newcomb is the first citizen of the United States to receive it (if we are right in thinking that Louis Agassiz never completed his citizenship). It has never yet been bestowed upon a native citizen of the United States, although Franklin and Rumford received it.

The unscientific as well as the scientific reader will find these memoirs entertaining. Such anecdotal books always make agreeable reading; and Newcomb's powers of telling a story and of painting a situation are much beyond the mediocre, while his light, pleasant style is quite remarkable. The two best chapters are the one that gives an account of the author's own work, and the one called "Scientific Washington." The brief notice of the Johns Hopkins University may also be singled out as better even than the rest; and it does justice to the singular faculty of Dr. Gilman, that university's only true begetter. The picture of the old Nautical Almanac Office in Cambridge from 1857 to 1861 is interesting, because that office bred a true school of mathematicians and philosophers, students mostly of Benjamin Peirce. As for scientific Cambridge as a whole, Newcomb was at that time not sufficiently developed, and as a consequence had not sufficient opportunities, fully to comprehend it. But perhaps the gem of the book is the account of his boyhood, a boyhood which, one can see, taught him much that was most valuable just because it did not teach him what he burned to know. It will afford the reader a lesson in human nature, too, by showing how apparently small a difference in his innate make-up would have converted this illustrious man, whose eminence is as little accidental as a man's can be, into an utter nobody, or even into an obscure little quack doctor of Nova Scotia. Young fellows will do well to ask themselves what was the ingredient of his character that saved him. Everywhere, the volume is pleasant reading. The author has shown a perfectly distinct apprehension of who might be interested in his reminiscences, and why, and has written it for them.

A History of Japan during the Century of Early Foreign Intercourse (1542-1651). By

James Murdoch and Isob Yamagata. Tokio: 10 Nishikata machi.

The work before us is one of the very few books on Japanese history which is based on original research, and written after long and laborious examination and comparison of documents and the weighing of evidence. Yet in its literary presentation it is hardly worthy of its great theme. It deals with that ever-interesting epoch in the world's history when the Japanese first knew and became known to Europeans, through mutual personal experiences, the interchange of products and the fruits of mind, and by embassies to and fro. Then the mighty onset of Western commerce and knowledge, and a terrific religious invasion, carried on with burning zeal and in the spirit of the Inquisition, threatened to destroy Japanese civilization and to bring the most Eastern of kingdoms under the intellectual and spiritual yoke of Southern Europe. Such a theme demands the highest literary expression, and a dignity of narration in harmony with the great events and personages described. One does not expect of the author any prepossession in favor of either Japanese or Portuguese, nor are we surprised at his aloofness of sympathy with the propagandists from Europe. Indeed, a cool, judicial spirit is exactly what we all desire in a historian; but the possession of even this excellence does not justify the author's use of slang and some decidedly low forms of the English language in treating of what he dislikes—a method which suits better a sensational newspaper than a dignified history.

Yet these faults are on the surface. After noticing them, it is only common justice to call attention to the great value of this work of more than 700 pages, which is indexed and has a rich equipment of colored maps. These show, as does no other work we know of, outside of the native literature, the feudal divisions of Japan in the times of Nobunaga, Hideyoshi, and Ieyasu. The battle plans are remarkably accurate and informing. An introductory chapter gives an admirable bird's-eye view of the history until the year of the arrival of foreigners. Two or three things Mr. Murdoch, who has lived many years in Japan, brings out clearly. One is that the rigid lines of demarcation between the samurai, or the warrior class, and the farmers, artisans, and merchants, so characteristic of society since 1600, were by no means strict in the old days. Any plebeian who could prove himself a good fighter was willingly received under the flag of a feudal potentate. So far from being a caste of hoary antiquity, at least as evidenced in the wearing of two swords, it was not until the last half of the sixteenth century that this privilege was reserved only to the samurai.

What makes the period treated by Mr. Murdoch so interesting to students, and most like the time spanned by the life of the present Mikado, is, that men of real ability, instead of crafty wire-pullers behind imposing figureheads, ruled the country. Japan's chronic disease during most of her history has been nepotism, and she has suffered from the ascendancy of rings and cliques; but in the sixteenth, as in the nineteenth, century, these were ruthlessly broken up. Men of real genius obtained control of national affairs, and they insisted upon the promotion of their subordinates who made devotion to duty

their first consideration. In the last analysis, it may be said that the reason why the Yedo bureaucracy, that dominated the country from the death of Ieyasu to the rise of native genius and energy in the southern clan and the *coup d'état* of 1688, was able to hold its own so long, lay in the expressed purpose of the great founder to create a system of government which could be administered by men of mediocrity.

Mr. Murdoch, in his chapter on the Portuguese discovery of Japan, disposes of the pleasing fiction that the pious and mendacious Pinto was the first European on Japanese soil. He is very vivid in picturing Xavier's movements and the spread of Christianity in Kiushiu. He holds the threads clearly in narrating the story of the three great men of Japan, and many of his pages are brilliant and fascinating. Nobunaga patronized the Jesuits, setting them against the bonzes, and enjoying the sport of their conflict as he would that of two fighting-cocks in a pit, and then finally crushed the Buddhist hosts—armies in fact, with reality of helmet, armor and weapons, as well as armies in name. In showing how Nobunaga rose and fell, and how Hideyoshi entered into his predecessor's labors, but with profounder genius, keener insight, vaster ken, and even greater energy, the author depends on no unscrutinized tradition or unchallenged legend. We make bold to say that, although other scholars have been fascinated by the same theme and have treated of this mighty parvenu, who, coming out of a stable, humbled the proudest of the many rings and cliques of nobles that hedged about the throne against the people, there is no picture of his personality, actions, and measures like that here presented. Furthermore, we venture to think that, without the coöperation of his Japanese helper, this picture of Mr. Murdoch's could not have been made so clear and strong. As in a stereoscope, the two differing mental projections, European and native, are brought into a common field of vision, with both relief and solidity.

The chapter on the Korean war (1592-1597), in which the Japanese swept the peninsula clean of its art and art works, has especial freshness, since Prof. H. M. Hulbert's Korean researches are here well utilized. With his usual critical challenge to popular impressions, Mr. Murdoch explodes the idea that the sea-power of the Koreans, which sadly upset the plans of the invading Japanese, extended as far as iron-clads. He believes that the famous "tortoise boat" which sunk the Japanese war junks was not iron-plated, but received its chief offensive power because of its swiftness and superior artillery. The author sets more store upon the great Osaka struggle (1614-1615) than upon the battlefield of Sekigahara, as the decisive event in forecasting the destinies of Japan for over two centuries. He treats of the Tokugawa administrative machine in a chapter which, while illuminating, leaves considerable to be desired. He shows how clearly Ieyasu foresaw that in time of luxurious peace few of his descendants were likely to be men of any very marked ability. Of the Portuguese and Dutch; of the revolt at Shimabara, in 1637, which he considers, in its animus and procedure, to have been almost wholly Christian; of the expulsion of the Portuguese, and the Dutch at Deshima; and of internal affairs immediately after

1616, the author writes clearly, and shows a strong grasp of his many-sided subject.

We understand that another volume is to follow, for which we can assure a very warm welcome from scholars. If for no other reason than to correct the manifold and variegated errors in previous works on Japanese history, all libraries of any importance in Occidental countries should possess this work.

Sebastopol, and Other Military Tales. By Leo Tolstoy. Translated by Louise and Aylmer Maude. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 1903. Pp. xlvi. 325.

This volume is the first of a series which is intended to be "a reliable version of all Tolstoy's works." The translators belong to a small but enthusiastic minority who regard Tolstoy's religious and philosophical tenets as of more importance to the world than his artistic creations. They are in sympathetic personal relations both with Tolstoy himself and with his friend Vladimir Tchertkoff, who publishes in England the authorized Russian editions of the works of Tolstoy that are under the ban of the censorship. They state that they do not wish to earn money by their translations; and they evidently regard this edition as the fulfilment of a moral obligation.

On a cursory examination, this opening volume seems superior both in accuracy and in English style to the versions of the same tales hitherto most readily accessible in America. The versions of the more important novels will furnish a firmer basis of comparison. The present volume is well printed on good paper, and is not expensive. Besides this, Mr. Maude states in his preface: "It is hoped to reach the many readers who can only afford cheap books, by reproducing these translations at a low price in the second year of their issue." The notes are good, and at the close of the volume there is a useful index referring to them. In a word, the execution of this volume and the plans for those to follow show conscientiousness and competence for the task undertaken. Though few people will sympathize entirely with the tone of Mr. Maude's preface, this book gives great cause for rejoicing to those who care for Tolstoy. Let us hope that the present translators will be able to do more than "lay the foundations" for their edition.

Some "patriotic" sentences are omitted from "Sebastopol," though they appear in the Moscow edition. For the omission Mr. Maude has authority from Tolstoy, who writes: "All [these passages] were either altered or inserted by the editor [of the magazine in which 'Sebastopol' first appeared] to meet the wishes of the censor." At a distance of almost fifty years, and after many mental and spiritual revolutions, Tolstoy's memory may deceive him. Such things have happened with other authors. He may even have written the "specially abominable" passage: "It is a comfort to think that it is not we who began this war, that we are only defending our own country, our Fatherland." In such cases it would be better to retain the offensive passages in brackets, or at least to give a full list of them.

Bryant's Complete Poetical Works. Roslyn Edition. D. Appleton & Co. 1903.

It is now more than twenty years since Mr. Parke Godwin, the son-in-law and biographer of the poet, published in two bulky quartos his definitive edition of Bryant's verse. That in all this time there has appeared no convenient reissue of it in a single volume, though it left nothing to be desired in text, notes, and arrangement, is proof enough, if evidence were wanting in other quarters, of the decay into which has fallen the first considerable representation in American literature. "Bryant is a fading and almost Ossianic figure, a writing ghost, to most of us," writes Mr. Woodberry in a recent essay; and the fact, if not the implied criticism, seems incontestable. Longfellow, the only other American poet who has ever compared with Bryant in general popularity, has appeared in edition after edition, and the publishers seem to be unable to supply him in forms varied enough to meet the public demand. Bryant, on the other hand, who at one time enjoyed a singleness of reputation such as has been acquired by no other native poet, has long been easily accessible only in the old and incomplete Household Edition prepared by himself two years before his death, and in reprints of still earlier editions even less complete.

At last, however, we have the new Roslyn Edition, a collection that comprises in a single volume all the verse that Bryant ever wrote. But though it is complete and convenient, it is still far from being satisfactory. It seems inexplicable that in its preparation some use, at least, should not have been made of Mr. Godwin's editorial labors. His text, notes, and arrangement, preceded by a Memoir based upon his biography, would have made an ideal edition. That so sensible and logical a plan was not followed is apparently due to the fact of there having been no editorial supervision of the work as a whole. The late Mr. R. H. Stoddard contributes a memoir, somewhat sketchy and inaccurate, and Mr. H. G. Sturges a complete chronology of the events of the poet's life with an admirable bibliography of his work; but neither one nor the other nor any one else appears to have had anything to do with the body of the book, which, except for the addition of the fifty-odd poems first included by Mr. Godwin in his edition, is merely a reprint of the old Household Edition. In view of this fact, the "Note to the Reader," in which it is stated that the poems are arranged in the order in which they were written, is false and misleading. This is the arrangement adopted, very wisely, we think, from every point of view, by Mr. Godwin, who also placed after each poem the date of its composition. In the Roslyn Edition, however, the poems are given as they were arranged by Bryant himself, in the interest, presumably, of what he considered an effective presentation, so that "The Ages" precedes "Thanatopsis" as the first poem in the volume—a precedence which it deserves on the grounds neither of time nor of merit.

With respect to the text, we notice the failure to follow Mr. Godwin's lead in at least one important particular. The second stanza of "The Waterfowl" reads or should read:

"Vainly the fowler's eye
Might mark thy distant flight to do thee wrong,
As darkly painted on the crimson sky,
Thy figure floats along."

Bryant was always dissatisfied with the word "painted," which he felt to conflict with the idea of floating in the line following; but, although he tried several expedients, he never succeeded in improving the sense without injuring the poetry. In the last edition, he changed the line to read:

"As seen against the crimson sky,"

which, as Mr. Godwin remarks, is tame, and weakens the effect. Bryant himself finally restored the line to its first form in several later instances where the poem was to be printed separately. Mr. Godwin did likewise, and there now seems to be no reason why any editor with a sense of Bryant's style should not adopt his precedent.

For notes, the Roslyn Edition has only Bryant's few explanatory remarks. Mr. Godwin added many others of a personal and critical interest, but none of them is retained except his list of the various readings of certain lines of "Thanatopsis," which are given by Mr. Sturges in the bibliography.

Apart from these matters, what one misses most in the volume is an adequate estimate of Bryant's genius and place in American literature. If Mr. Stoddard's memoir on the biographical side is sketchy and inaccurate, it is even less satisfactory when it touches on the work of the poet. Here if ever there was an opportunity to attempt a rehabilitation of Bryant's reputation. But, instead of a sympathetic and discriminating effort to meet the charges of those who see in Bryant only the sentimental and didactic poet, the servile imitator of Wordsworth, there is only vague and general characterization which passes into a vein of extravagant eulogy. "We should like to know what lines in Southey and Kirke White suggested 'Thanatopsis' that they might be printed in gold hereafter," writes Mr. Stoddard in one place; and in another, praising him at the expense of Wordsworth: "The 'Excursion' is a tiresome poem, which contains several exquisite episodes. Mr. Bryant knew how to write exquisite episodes, and to omit the platitudes through which we reach them in other poets." Such lack of proper perception and of real appreciation disqualified Mr. Stoddard for the task of reintroducing Bryant to a new generation of American readers, who are at least as likely to be prejudiced against him by an excess of in-judicious and uncritical warmth of enthuz-

siasm as by the narrowly depreciatory tone of a critic like Mr. Barrett Wendell, for whom Bryant is merely a provincial English poet, expressing "a somewhat formal sentimentality which had hardly characterized vital work in England for fifty years." Of course, Bryant is much more than this. He is an American poet, whose native inspiration is so imaginatively and sincerely expressed that it is of little consequence in what school his style was formed. Yet, on the other hand, he is no Wordsworth; and although we may sometimes call him the "American Wordsworth" by way of expressing what we feel to be our indebtedness to him for having rendered romantic with poetic association our native landscape, he is not for one instant seriously to be compared with that great poet-philosopher whose impress is on all English poetry since his time. It is not merely that there is in Bryant's poetry none of Wordsworth's mystic pantheism. There is, to offset this, Bryant's expression of the religious ideals of Puritanism. It is rather that, compared with Wordsworth, Bryant brings to the imaginative interpretation of nature a much smaller capacity of mind and heart. Wordsworth may often indulge in platitudes, but his "exquisite episodes" are profound revelations of spiritual truth; whereas in Bryant, no matter how fresh or delicate or pietistic his expression, there is almost inevitably a touch of the obvious and commonplace. There can be no doubt that it is this want of either intellectual depth or originality that is the real source of weakness in Bryant's poetry.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barnard, L. F. S. Friends Hither and Yon. (Verse.) Boston: Richard G. Badger. \$1.
Boegli, Lina. Forward. (Travel.) Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$2 net; postage 13 cents.
Borrows, Isobel Berners. Edited, with Introduction, by Thomas Seccombe. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1 net.
Buck, Carl Darling. A Grammar of Oscar and Umbrian. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$3; postage 15 cents.
Bryan's Dictionary of Painters and Engravers. Vol. III., H-M. The Macmillan Co. \$6 net.
Chronicon Adua de Us. Edited, with a translation, by Sir Edward Maunde Thompson. Second edition. London: Henry Frowde. 10s. 6d. net.
Collowood, W. G. Ruskin Relics. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$2.50 net; postage 25 cents.
Colquhoun, Archibald R. The Mastery of the Pacific. The Macmillan Co.
Dryden's Essay of Dramatic Poesy. (Clarendon Press Series.) Third edition, revised by William T. Arnold. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d.
Farrar, Reginald. The Life of Frederic William Farrar. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$2 net; postage 20 cents.
Fraser, Mrs. Hugh. The Stolen Emperor. (Fiction.) Dodd, Mead & Co.

Goldsmith's The Good Natur'd Man, and She Stoops to Conquer, edited by Austin Dobson; and Jonson's Eastward Hoe, and The Alchemist, edited by Felix E. Schelling. (English drama section of the Belles-Lettres Series.) Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Günther, J. H. A. English Synonyms Explained and Illustrated. Groningen: J. B. Wolters. 250 fl.
Harper, Rev. J. Wilson. The Post-Ecclesi Prophets. (The Temple Series of Bible Handbooks.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 30 cents.
Horne, Herman Harrell. The Philosophy of Education. The Macmillan Co. \$1.75 net.
Hudson, Thomson Jay. The Evolution of the Soul, and Other Essays. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. \$1.20 net.
Hubert, Archer Butler. Military Roads of the Mississippi Basin. (Vol. VIII., Historic Highways of America.) Cleveland, O.: The Arthur H. Clark Co.
Huneker, James. Overtones. (Studies of music and composers.) Charles Scribner's Sons.
Kennedy, Bart. A Tramp in Spain. Frederick Warne & Co. \$2.50 net.
Lord Byron's Works. Poetry. Vol. VII. London: John Murray; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$2.
Matthewman, Lisle De Vaux. Brevities. (Companion book to "Crankisms.") Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co. 80 cents net.
Matthewman, S. D. Christ. The Macmillan Co. \$1.25 net.
Milligan, George. The Twelve Apostles. (Temple Series of Bible Handbooks.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Philadelphia: J. P. Lippincott Co. 30 cents.
Pemberton, Max. A Daughter of the States. (Fiction.) Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.50.
Prout, Ebenezer. Mozart. Wyndham. H. Saxe.
Arthur Sullivan. (Bell's Miniature Series of Musicians.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Ramsay, George Gilbert. The Annals of Tacitus. Books I-VI. An English translation, with introduction. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$4 net.
Ravenstein, E. G. Philip's Handy-Volume Atlas of the World. London: George Philip & Son, Ltd.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1 net.
Riis, Jacob A. Theodore Roosevelt the Citizen. The Outlook Co. \$2 net.
Sawyer, W. C. Teutonic Legends in the Nibelungen Lied and the Nibelungen Ring. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$2 net; postage 13 cents.
Scherzer, George L. The Evolution of Modern Liberty. Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.10 net; postage 10 cents.
Scott, S. P. History of the Moorish Empire in Spain. 3 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$10 net.
Select Cases in the Star Chamber, 1477-1500. Vol. XVI. of Publications of the Selden Society. London: Bernard Quaritch.
Sever, George F. Electrical Engineering Experiments. D. Van Nostrand Co. \$1.
Simon Peter. Fisherman. Eaton & Mains. 75 cents.
Skrine, Francis Henry. The Expansion of Russia, 1815-1900. (Cambridge Historical Series.) Cambridge (Eng.); University Press; New York: The Macmillan Co. 6s.
Standard Second Reader; and Teachers' Manual for Second Reader. Funk & Wagnalls Co.
Steffens, Lincoln. The Shame of the Cities. McClure, Phillips & Co. \$1.20 net.
Sutcliffe, Halliwell. A Bachelor in Arcady. (Fiction.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$1.60.
Tennyson's In Memoriam. With commentary by L. Morel. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1 net.
The Merchant of Venice. (Reproduction of First Folio text of 1623.) Edited by Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. Leather, 75 cents net; cloth, 50 cents net; postage 5 cents.
Thirtle, James William. The Titles of the Psalms. London and New York: Henry Frowde. 6s. net.
Townsend, Edward W. "Sure." (New "Chimble Fadden" Stories.) Dodd, Mead & Co. 75 cents.
Underwood, L. H. Fifteen Years among the Top-Knots, or Life in Korea. American Tract Society. \$1.50.
Van Denburg, Frank A. Hezekiah's Kortship. Boston: Richard G. Badger. \$1.25.
Ward, John J. Minute Marvels of Nature. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. \$1.00 net; postage 15 cents.
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